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Effects of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach on the English Learning Motivation and English Proficiency of Non-English Majors in a Technological and Vocational University in Northern Taiwan

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Effects of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach on the English Learning Motivation and English Proficiency of Non-English Majors in a Technological and Vocational University in Northern Taiwan

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach on learner motivation and English proficiency. I was challenged to examine the feasibility of a Western-based pedagogy administered in a country where traditional grammar-based instruction has dominated for decades. Given that CLT studies on vocational university students in Taiwan have been largely unexplored, it is my concern in this dissertation as to whether and how the CLT approach would facilitate the learning process. Also, the present study aimed to examine the factors resulting in students' non-engagement in a communication-based classroom. Prior to and after CLT instructional practice to 163 freshmen from a vocational university, I administered motivation questionnaire surveys and English proficiency tests in listening and reading, and interviews were conducted to elicit their perceptions towards the teaching approach and in-class activities. The findings showed that CLT instruction enhanced subjects' instrumental motivation and it had a beneficial effect on their English listening proficiency. Moreover, the conclusions were supported by the finding that the more intrinsic interest a learner displayed in learning English, the more gains there would be in his English listening proficiency. A number of factors that hindered learners' engagement in classroom activities comprising the learner factor, the peer factor, the implementation factor, and the administration factor were also discussed. The outcomes of the study have yielded pedagogical implications as to what changes could be made in the CLT classroom to achieve the most facilitative effects on teaching and learning among Taiwanese vocational university students.

Key words: communicative language teaching, motivation, English listening proficiency, English reading proficiency

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research problem

According to the Taiwan Ministry of Education (MOE) (2002), vocational education students in Taiwan, who are non-academically streamed students, have a relatively lower English competence than do English majors or even non-English majors in general universities. Their low competence in English does not empower them to read English textbooks or journals or write reports and assignments in English. Having been an EFL language teacher in Taiwan for years, I was led to wonder why it is so difficult for my students to achieve an acceptable level of English competence. This acted as a catalyst for the intent of this study.

As English is a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan, students have had very little opportunity to use English outside the classroom. After English developed into a lingua franca among non-native English speakers of English from all over the world, what now seems urgently required for English language teaching professionals in Taiwan is to find a pedagogy that is appropriate for low motivated and less proficient learners, who are passive and already behind their peers. As motivation plays a significant role in any learning task (Brown, 2001; Chang, 2002; Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), this study aims to examine the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) as a potential viable teaching method that can be adopted in Taiwan to motivate Taiwanese students in the tertiary vocational education sector and ultimately enhance their English proficiency.

The roles of English as an international language (EIL) and as a means of trade and commerce have highlighted the issue that it is essential for Taiwanese students to acquire communication skills in English (Jenkins, 2006b). This trend of using English to communicate prevails in many Asian countries including Taiwan. The English learning environment in Taiwan is strikingly different from that in some Asian countries termed

the 'Outer Circle' (Kachru, 1985) such as Hong Kong, Singapore, or the Philippines in that English in Taiwan and elsewhere in the 'Expanding Circle' (ibid.) is primarily taught as a school subject with very limited direct contact with native English speakers. As a result, in order to make our students compete on an international basis, teaching communicative English becomes highly demanding.

The advancement of science and technology in Taiwan since the 1990s has brought about rapid socio-economic changes that have a tremendous impact on developments in education. For Taiwan to become more economically competitive, globalisation is a major issue in education. The emergence of English as a global language has had an enormous effect on international communication. The Taiwan government sees economic growth as an impetus for promoting English learning. The advances of globalisation in international economic success in recent years have led the Taiwan government to introduce English as a compulsory subject at the primary and secondary school levels of education. A grade one to nine curriculum was introduced and English education was extended to the 3rd grade as opposed to the 7th grade under the old system (Su, 2006). At the secondary school level the Taiwan MOE encouraged schools to design and offer English language courses in order to enhance global competitiveness. Meanwhile, the role of tertiary level English education was also emphasised by the MOE. Various policies and measures were undertaken to enhance students' English competence at all levels. Consequently, it was hoped by the Taiwan government that students at all levels nationwide would enhance their English competency to sustain international competitiveness.

1.2 Purpose of the study

Irrespective of many studies undertaken on motivation and communicative language teaching, relatively little information has been gathered on the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on low motivated and less proficient non-English majors in vocational universities in Taiwan. Very few studies aim at

nursing students, a sector in vocational education which is largely unexplored in Taiwan. The initial impetus for this study is self-reflection on my teaching methods and on the means to enhance the English proficiency of my students, most of whom are at a lower English proficiency level. I therefore attempt to carry out the communicative language teaching approach to enhance my students' learning motivation and English listening and reading competence.

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, six research questions which serve as the grounding and basis of the overall construct are addressed in the next section.

1.3 Research questions

The research questions for this study are shown below.

1. What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' learning motivation?
2. What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English listening proficiency?
3. What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English reading proficiency?
4. What is the relationship between students' learning motivation and their English listening proficiency?
5. What is the relationship between students' learning motivation and their English reading proficiency?
6. What factors may hinder students from engaging in a communication-based classroom?

1.4 Definition of terms

For the aims of this study, the following terms are operationally defined.

• *Communication-based Classroom*

In a communication-based classroom, language teaching and learning are centred around all of the components of communicative competence. Students are engaged in the functional, pragmatic, and authentic use of language for meaningful purposes. Ultimately, they develop fluency and accuracy and are able to use the language productively and receptively.

• *Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)*

Communicative language teaching is defined by Richards, Platt, & Platt (1992) as "an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasises that the goal of language learning is communicative competence" (p. 65). In short, it is a language teaching approach that centres around communicative competence, which emphasises the significance of providing learners with opportunities to use English for communicative purposes. One distinguishing feature of CLT is that "it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 1). Through interaction and negotiation of meaning in communicative activities such as role-plays, games, problem-solving and information gap activities, learners communicate in a meaningful way. The role of a CLT teacher is therefore to develop authentic materials and design learner-centred activities based on students' needs so as to develop their strategies and hence 'communicative competence'.

• *English as a Foreign Language (EFL)*

EFL stands for English as a foreign language. In many non-English speaking countries such as China and Taiwan, English is taught as a school subject rather than the medium for instruction or as a language for daily communication (Borg, 2006).

• *English as an International Language (EIL)*

EIL, short for 'English as an International Language', refers to the local Englishes

of non-English countries. It also refers to "the use of English as a means of international communication across national and linguistic boundaries" (Jenkins, 2006a). The rapid spread of English since the second half of the twentieth century, which has implications for TESOL, has been extensively discussed by teachers, linguists, and researchers.

- *English Listening Proficiency*

English listening proficiency refers to the comprehension of many types of conversations and talks such as broadcasts, announcements and all kinds of English verbal discourse by English speakers. In the present study the participants' English listening proficiency is assessed by the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) test, a globally recognised standardised test prevalent in many non-English speaking countries including Taiwan.

- *English Proficiency*

English proficiency refers to a language user's proficiency in the use of English. It is related to the grammatical aspects of the language, discourse, and sociolinguistic knowledge (Spolsky, 1989) as well as the learner's macro skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In this study, English proficiency refers to English listening proficiency and English reading proficiency, the two language components being assessed and used as the dependant variables.

- *English Reading Proficiency*

English reading proficiency refers to the comprehension of written texts and discourses in English. In the present study the participants' English reading proficiency is assessed by the Test of English for International Communication, the TOEIC test, a globally recognised standardised test prevalent in many non-English speaking countries including Taiwan.

• *English as a Second Language (ESL)*

ESL stands for English as a second language. In English-speaking countries such as the US, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, English is taught as a second language for people whose native language is not English.

• *Learning Motivation*

Motivation is an inner drive, impulse, or desire that moves one to perform a particular action. Learning motivation refers to "the latent variable comprised of Desire to Learn the Language, Motivational Intensity, and Attitudes toward Learning the Language" (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994, p. 526). In the literature, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are differentiated. Gardner and Lambert (1972) described integrative motivation as a desire to integrate and identify with the target language group. They describe instrumental motivation as a desire to use the language to achieve practical goals such as getting a job. In this study, learning motivation is measured by the questionnaire survey and structured interview. The five-point Likert scale questionnaire items pertain to students' motivational orientations. Through interviews more information could be elicited in relation to learners' motivation.

• *Non-English Majors*

The participating students in this study were non-English majors studying at a vocational university in northern Taiwan. In this study non-English majors refer to those studying a subject other than English in a college or university in Taiwan.

• *Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) & Task-based Instruction (TBI)*

Task-based language teaching and task-based instruction are connected to learning through tasks. "A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective" (Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001, p. 11). In

task-based instruction, students collaborate and engage in communicative activities through pair work and group work that involve learners "in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language ..." (Nunan, 1989, p. 4).

- *Technological and Vocational University*

A technological and vocational university is an educational institution which represents a portion of the technological and vocational education system in Taiwan. The purpose of the technological and vocational education track is to cultivate technical professionals for the country. The scope of this system ranges from technological institutes to technology and science-oriented universities. In this study the participants went to a nursing university, which was categorised into a technological and vocational university.

- *The General English Proficiency Test (GEPT)*

The General English Proficiency Test, known as the GEPT, developed and administered by the Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC), is a Taiwan-based standardised test. It serves as Taiwan's English education framework, which is designed to tailor to the specific needs of English learners in Taiwan for assessment, and provides institutions with a yardstick for evaluating the English proficiency levels of their students. The GEPT covers four language skills — listening, speaking, reading and writing. It has been acknowledged by a majority of institutions, schools and government agencies in Taiwan for decades.

- *The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC)*

The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) is an assessment of learners' communicative ability in English for the workplace developed by the Education Testing Services (ETS). It comprises a 100-item listening comprehension test and another 100-item reading comprehension test. In this study the participants'

listening and reading competency were measured by the TOEIC tests and their test scores were used as the basis for assessing their English proficiency level.

1.5 Significance of the study

In the literature, research studies that show a positive relationship between students' motivation and their English proficiency have mostly been carried out in ESL settings. Few studies, however, have investigated the correlation between the two on low motivated and less proficient college students in EFL contexts. This study, therefore, is unique in that it is one of the first that directs attention to the way in which Western-based pedagogy might raise learner motivation level and thereby enhance the proficiency or achievement of low motivated, less proficient EFL learners in Asian countries. There are several reasons why this research is worth undertaking. First, the area of EFL studies in a vocational university featuring nursing students in Taiwan has not been fully examined before. The present study, therefore, may be of some value in advancing teaching and learning practices in a nursing setting in Taiwan. Secondly, given that implementing the CLT approach in a vocational education setting in Taiwan seems largely unexplored and few studies focus specifically on low-motivated students, my intent here is to raise questions and provide solutions to how less-proficient students can be motivated to learn English in a way other than the traditional teaching method. Thirdly, this study challenges Western-based pedagogy and wishes to provide insights into how CLT can be applied or adapted to fit an EFL classroom in Taiwan. Fourthly, this study aims to explore the extent communicative tasks motivate less proficient students in an EFL setting, culminating in a better learning outcome. This study further intends to shed light on the current pedagogic realities in Taiwan by seeking a teaching method that is appropriate and effective for the Taiwan context. Finally, it is hoped that the present study prepares Taiwanese vocational university students for EIL through pedagogical approaches that teach it effectively, as the way English is taught and learnt increases international opportunities brought by the knowledge of English.

1.6 Summary

In the past few decades English has emerged as an international language, which has gained significance and has had an impact on education in Taiwan. To meet global competitiveness and challenges, the Taiwan government has initiated new policies and made changes in the curriculum and teaching materials to promote English education at all levels with a focus on communicative competence. As English is taught as a school subject rather than as a means of instruction or a language for daily communication, I propose the Communicative Language Teaching, Western-based pedagogy as opposed to the traditional teaching approaches prevalent in Taiwan — a test-oriented country. Accordingly, this study aims to explore the application and practicality of the CLT approach, its effect on low-motivated, less proficient vocational university students in Taiwan with the ultimate intent of successful language learning.

In the chapters that follow, Chapter two introduces related research and empirical studies. Chapter three deals with the methods used to acquire the results. Chapter four concerns the results of this study. Finally, Chapter five concludes with a discussion of the implications of the study results and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This section examines the theories and models applicable to the implementation of the current study. It is divided into six sections. Section one introduces English education in Taiwan, aiming at the status and characteristics of the English education system in general and the English competence of university students specifically at the vocational tertiary level. Section two involves Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), its history, developments, definitions, features and its major models as well as a comparison and contrast with traditional teaching methods. This section also addresses some criticisms of CLT, and deals with a number of studies in both ESL and EFL settings, with a specific focus on language teachers' reported difficulties of implementing CLT in the classroom. It is then followed by Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), a recent manifestation of CLT, in the next section. What ensues in section four is a link between CLT to TBLT, two separate but similar pedagogical representations. In section five I explore motivation, its major models and theories, types and developments in regard to second language education. Finally, section six provides an overview of the entire chapter.

2.1 English education in Taiwan

In this section, I offer an overview of the current situation of English education in Taiwan. I focus specifically on the characteristics of the education system, which serves as the cause for the low English competency of vocational university students. Then, the issue of the English competence of Taiwanese university students, specifically students in the technological and vocational education is discussed.

2.1.1 A Test-oriented education system: High-stakes public examination

A major problem with the education system in Taiwan is that it is a test-oriented education system (Chang, 2006). English is a compulsory school subject in Taiwan in the primary and lower secondary school level. Students have to pass the Basic Academic Competence Test (BACT) to enter a senior high school and pass the Joint University Entrance Examination (JUEE) to enter a college or a university. In this respect Taiwan seems to have adopted the worst feature of Japan's education system. It started when Taiwan was ceded to Japan in 1894 after China's defeat in the Sino-Japanese war (Yang, 2001). Japan surrendered to the Allies and ended a long-term sovereignty over Taiwan at the end of World War II. Under the Japanese colonisation for half a century, Taiwanese people were damaged in terms of their language, culture and, most of all, a national identity. The education system of Taiwan is similar to that of Japan in many respects. As in Japan, students who wish to attend academic high schools, colleges or universities must pass a difficult entrance examination. Students therefore spend long hours in school, complete homework and then go to cram schools. To compete with students from other schools or cram schools, teachers give their students more daily assignments and more weekly and monthly quizzes and tests. Cram schools are just around every corner to help students prepare for school exams. Although extended channels are open in lower secondary and upper secondary education, the BACT and JUEE remain the mainstream admittance channels. The education system of Taiwan was, is, and has always been test-oriented. The 'Examination Hell' (Lee & Larson, 2000), a phenomenon pervasive in many Asian countries, is a nightmare imposed on every Taiwanese family.

An interesting report released by the British Council Taiwan in September 2009 (United Daily News, 2009) reflected Taiwan's education problem in learning English. According to British Council in Taiwan, Taiwanese students ranked 13th out of 14 countries in the 2008 International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scores

based on a population grouping, followed by most other Asian countries, including Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea. On the basis of the mother language grouping, examinees whose mother language was Chinese ranked 18th out of 20 in the IELTS tests 2006. In response to this the British Council in Taiwan pointed out five learning obstacles for Taiwanese students in learning English (British Council Taiwan, 2007). First of all, standardised unified teaching materials were used. Secondly, teaching was not student-centred. Thirdly, English course design was old-fashioned rather than innovative. Fourthly, teacher accreditation was not internationalised and therefore unable to provide quality teaching to students. Fifthly, there was a lack of facilitating an English learning environment and facilities. Chief Learning Officer Mr. Lain Mackie, British Council Taiwan concluded that central to the Taiwan English education system was a test-oriented teaching and learning style rather than a communicative one.

In this respect, high-stakes language tests determine access to education. As such, classroom teachers tend to be more dependent upon the transmission of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, cramming their students with tons of examination-related notes and exercises. Examination-oriented classroom instruction is claimed by teachers in Asian countries including Taiwan (Lin, 2009) to have hindered and lowered students' learning motivation and their interest in adopting the CLT or TBLT approach.

2.1.2 English Language Competence of Taiwanese University Students

In the past ten years the results of various studies have well documented the low English proficiency of Taiwanese students (Chen & Squires, 2010; Hsu, 2009; Wu, 2008). In a perspective on English listening comprehension Ho and Yang (2007) revealed a low English listening proficiency among vocational college students in Taiwan. Their study concluded that there was a far bigger gap between the participants' genuine English competence and the anticipated English proficiency level set by the MOE. It was further evidenced in a government report (Ministry of the Interior Taiwan,

2009) that shocked everyone. It revealed that Taiwanese senior high school and vocational high school students were way behind their Korean and Japanese counterparts in the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) test results. Director Chin-Ji Wu, MOE Taiwan, was prompted to reflect on curricula and policies. At the 2009 Annual Education Foundation Conference, Wu stressed that the key to an enhancement of Taiwanese students' English competency lay in a kind of context specific learning that facilitated building learners' listening and speaking abilities. He reminded us that, an underlying component of this was to avoid a test-oriented education system. He argued that the reason Taiwanese students were less competent in the TOEIC test was perhaps due to an overemphasis on the GEPT and the TOEFL so as to overlook the TOEIC, a business-oriented test. He seemed to imply that Taiwanese students require improvement in English that is used in the workplace, hence the significance of communicative competence, which will be further discussed in a subsequent section.

At the tertiary level, the MOE Four-year Plan (MOE, 2005) clearly stated that enhancing students' English competency was a major long-term goal in terms of the national policies in education. To achieve this, many colleges and universities mandated that their students take and pass the GEPT, a locally developed English test or other internationally standardised tests such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the TOEIC, the TOEFL, and others before they graduated.

A large body of research (Chang & Tu, 2007; Chen & Squires, 2010; Joe, 2005; Shih, 2007) has been undertaken to look into the factors for the low English competency of Taiwanese students, particularly at the tertiary technological and vocational education level (Chang & Tu, 2007; Joe, 2005). Firstly, there is a big gap in the students' English proficiency levels prior to their entering a vocational institute from higher secondary school and higher vocational secondary school, making the goal of enhancing vocational university students' English competency a tougher issue sought after nationwide. Secondly, the traditional teaching approach is responsible for demotivating

them from learning English. Not being able to put English into effective use, test-oriented teaching causes them to become test machines. Thirdly, limited instruction time, uninteresting teaching materials, inconsistency between teaching objectives and course planning could also be a problem (Lin, 1995). For example, the English course hours offered to the participants in this study were a mere two to four hours a week squeezed into one morning, a total of maximum 72 hours in one semester. A similar problem is echoed by Joe (2005), who pointed out that the big gap in programmes and subjects resulting in differing learner needs and individual circumstances is responsible for the inconsistency between teaching objective and course planning. Fourthly, there is a lack of confidence and positive attitudes on the part of students towards learning English. Fifthly, there is a prevalent high value placed on studying to acquire professional certificates and licenses over the learning of English, leading to low self-esteem in English learning by the government and society. Additionally, a lack of a globalised insight vis-à-vis competitiveness is perhaps another factor. This phenomenon reveals that Taiwanese students have long been accustomed to a test-oriented teaching approach rather than an approach based on international communication.

In this regard, the 2005-2008 Education Initiative (MOE, 2004) stated that the passing rate of the preliminary level of the GEPT for technological and vocational college students is anticipated to raise from 14% in 2003 to 50% in 2008 (Chang & Tu, 2007). Chang (2006) stressed that to achieve this goal, it required time and constant efforts devoted by language teachers and educators to design a well mapped-out plan in course design, assessment, and teacher training to motivate students towards autonomous learning and ultimately the enhancement of their English competence. In view of this, many colleges and universities aimed at enhancing their students' English competence by setting a graduation requirement of passing standardised English tests (MOE Taiwan, 2004). However, as the aim of technological and vocational education is to nurture professionals and expertise in technology and academics (Chang & Tu, 2007), there was clearly a need for students to pass tests and acquire a certificate or license in

their professional field. Hitherto, English education in tertiary vocational institutes served as a tool to facilitate the learner's knowledge to develop individual professionalism. This can be reflected in a nationwide three-year investigation launched by the MOE Taiwan on the English proficiency of technological and vocational college students. MOE Taiwan authorised the Language Training & Testing Center (LTTC), a non-profit language learning and testing organisation, to initiate an evaluation whose results are shocking in that the passing rates for the preliminary level of the GEPT 2000-2002 among vocational college students were lows of 15.8%, 14.9% and 18.1% in three consecutive years (LTTC, 2002). The results of a few other studies (Liu, 2005; Yu, 2006; Yu, 2008) also indicated that many college graduates in Taiwan had limited communicative competence in English. Their English proficiency was equivalent to that of junior high school students (Wang, 2008). In Wang's (2008) study English low-proficiency students who experienced pain and frustration in learning English were stagnant and hardly ever improved in learning. The empirical results of her study attests to the importance and implications of what teachers can do to approach or assist low proficiency students who are behind their peers. If the current instructional practices and teaching materials are responsible for the diminished learner interests in learning English as explored in a survey with teacher educators in Wang's study, what could teachers or policy makers possibly do?

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

To illustrate the origin and evolution of CLT, I need to trace back to the time prior to its inception. The trends in the last 50 years grouped and categorised by Richards (2006) into three phases explained it all. "Phase 1: traditional approaches (up to the late 1960s), phase 2: classic communicative language teaching (1970s to 1990s), and phase 3: current communicative language teaching (late 1990s to the present)". (Richards, 2006, p. 6). This section is primarily focused on the development of CLT across phase 2 and phase 3.

Initiated in the 1960s and achieving prominence since the 1970s, CLT was developed as a result of dissatisfaction with traditional approaches such as the Audiolingual Method (ALM), Situational Language Teaching (SLM), and Grammar Translation (GT). Traditional approaches regard grammatical competence as the basis of language proficiency. The central belief of traditional approaches is that grammar or language proficiency can be acquired through patterns, oral drilling and repetitive controlled practice in a deductive way, usually in the order of four macro skills – speaking, listening, reading and writing (Richards, 2006).

A principal traditional approach, the Audiolingual Method, originated in the US in the 1940s, states that language learning takes place largely through habit formation (Celce-Murcia, 1991). This approach features grammatical structures that are carefully sequenced from basic to complex, and memorisation of sentence patterns is adopted extensively to present grammar rules inductively. Another type of traditional approach is known as Situational Language Teaching (Ozsevik, 2010). Initiated in the United Kingdom, this approach involves a three-stage sequence, known as the PPP cycle: presentation, practice, and production (Skehan, 1998). In the first stage, new grammar rules are presented in conversations. The teacher explains the structure and checks the students' understanding. In the second stage, students practise the target structure through drills or substitution exercise. In the third stage, students use the target structure in different settings. Also worth discussing is the Grammar Translation method, developed in the nineteenth century (Ozsevik, 2010). In this method, grammatical rules are the basis for translating from the second language to the native language. Grammar Translation features little use of the L2 and elaborate explanations of grammatical rules and "It does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language" (Brown, 2007, p. 16).

Prior to the emergence of CLT as a revisit to syllabus design and methodology in the 1960s, traditional approaches which focused on developing the learners' grammatical competence had gained pedagogical significance in English Language

Teaching (Ellis, 2006a). Teaching grammar and sentence patterns had become the central issue in the classroom. Controlled practice and oral drills were highlighted and the emphasis of instruction was on accuracy rather than fluency. In situations where a learner's grammar rules were constructed, there may be a case for the development of his listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Regardless of the prevalence of the above approaches in second language acquisition, the eminent American linguist Noam Chomsky criticised the behaviourist view of language. He interpreted linguistic competence at the sentence level of a native speaker, moving from the surface structure to the semantic structure of a language. In response to Chomsky's theory, Hymes (1971) proposed 'communicative competence', featuring negotiation of meaning and interaction in social contexts, which will be further explored in depth in the next section.

The communicative approach originated in the U.S. in the 1970s and British applied linguists weaved together a functional-notional syllabus – the communicative and functional aspects of language – in language programmes that were fostered and underscored in Europe. Drawing on the work of American sociolinguistics and other functional linguists, the British linguists highlighted the communicative functions rather than the structure of a language. They claimed that the syllabus of an instructional programme should not be organised around grammar. Rather, "language instruction should be content-based, meaningful, contextualized, and discourse-based" (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 462). Hitherto, the theories and use of CLT became widely accepted around the globe through the 1980s and into the 1990s and its implications in teaching have had a profound impact on ELT practices and policies (Yuet, 2008). Nonetheless, the definitions and principles of CLT are overtly fraught with confusion for many EFL teachers (Song, 2009). In fact, it is not uncommon to see English teachers, notably those in Asian countries, driven by the pressure of adopting CLT but are confounded by what CLT really is. It is conceivable that as many teachers and practitioners differ markedly in their reactions to CLT, attention is directed towards the

realisation of what communicative competence and CLT really are, which brings us to the next section.

2.2.1 Communicative competence: Models of CLT

As discussed earlier, in response to Chomsky's theory of the linguistic competence of the native speaker, Hymes put forward the notion of 'communicative competence'. Chomsky (1965) made a distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. He referred to 'competence' as the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the target language whereas 'performance' dealt with the actual use of the language in specific situations. The stronger claim is that competence is the grammar that an English native speaker internalises vis-à-vis performance which concerns the affective factors that are related to his or her own perception and production of speech.

In contrast, Hymes (1972) argued that language acquisition is not context-free. He first used the term 'communicative competence' to explicate what a native speaker knows that enables him to communicate with other native speakers. His communicative competence focuses on the use of language in social contexts. He theorised that the functional perspectives of a language are promoted when an individual's communicative competence develops in contexts where he communicates with native speakers. This kind of interaction with native speakers, according to Hymes, is spontaneous. It entails "how to use not just words but also intonation, gestures, and other linguistic and non-linguistic communication features to communicate a message in an intended way" (Folse, 2010, p. 8). This concept is in sharp contrast to the prevailing theory by Chomsky, which is centred around grammatical ability.

Later Canale and Swain (1980) proposed an important framework that delineated communicative competence in virtue of language use and language learning. Communicative competence, to Canale and Swain, is multi-faceted in that it stresses being able to use a language rather than just learning about the language rules or memorising dialogues. Canale and Swain expanded communicative competence to

include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence (Littlewood, 1981). Grammatical competence, also known as linguistic competence, which focuses on the surface features of a language, refers to the ability or knowledge to organise the linguistic or grammatical norms to form grammatical sentences (ibid.). In highlighting this view, Canale and Swain cited Hymes (1972) and claimed that "there are rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use" and "there are rules of language use that would be useless without rules of grammar" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 5).

Sociolinguistic competence, an indispensible component of communicative competence, refers to the rules of the usage of a language in social contexts. It refers to the ability to understand the meanings of utterances beyond the literal meaning in social situations. Canale and Swain reminded us that communicative competence should include both grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence as "knowing a lot of information about English did not correlate with higher levels of actual proficiency in using the language to communicate" (Folse, 2010, p. 9).

In addition to the grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, Canale and Swain added strategic competence, which refers to "the ability to compensate for problems or deficits in communication and do various types of planning" (Celce-Murcia 2007, p. 42). Later Canale (1983) added 'discourse competence' to refer to the ability to interpret language beyond the sentence level, i.e., "the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message" (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46). Taken the above, a model of a four-component theoretical framework for communicative competence was proposed in which grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence were seen as the identifying features of CLT.

Later Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995) proposed that actional competence, which referred to the ability to comprehend and produce speech acts, should also be a component of communicative competence. They also put forward two

changes in the terms 'sociolinguistic competence' and 'grammatical competence'. They suggested that the sociolinguistic competence be revised to sociocultural competence and that grammatical competence be re-phrased as linguistic competence. In their model the five components — linguistic competence, strategic competence, sociocultural competence, actional competence and discourse competence — were interrelated and constantly interacting with each other, with discourse competence the central competence. Twelve years later Celce-Murcia (2007) drew on her previous models to propose a revised model to describe communicative competence. Her new construct of communicative competence entailed sociocultural competence, discourse competence, linguistic competence, strategic competence, formulaic competence and interactional competence, maintaining the central role of discourse competence. It is noteworthy that behind this model lies the implied meaning for language pedagogy. It suggests a number of principles for course design that "aim at giving learners the knowledge and skills they need to be linguistically and culturally competent in a second or foreign language" (Celce-Murcia 2007, p. 51).

Apart from the above, other linguists and theorists (Bax, 2003; Brown, 2007; Burston & Kyprianou, 2009; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Ellis, 2010; Richards, 2008) have provided a thought-provoking look at language teaching, with a focus on the highly contextualised nature of CLT. In Ellis' (1994) interpretation, communicative competence entailed the linguistic knowledge of a language user to understand and perform communicative tasks. He held the position that a person with communicative competence is able to use his social and cultural knowledge to interpret both linguistic forms and meaning. More conceptualisations of communicative competence and CLT were advanced by others including Bachman (1990), Brown (1972), Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992). Bachman (1990), for instance, theorised communicative competence to include knowledge structures, strategic and language competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. His model distinguished between language competence and communicative competence. Based on Bachman's model (Bachman,

1990), Canale and Swain's grammatical competence and discourse competence were categorised as 'organisational competence', which involved the rules of a language. What Canale and Swain termed 'sociolinguistic competence' was categorised by Bachman as 'illocutionary competence' and 'sociolinguistic competence', two separate categories of 'pragmatic competence'. In another diagram (Bachman, 1990), Bachman illustrated strategic competence as a separate component of a learner's communicative ability, which had a part to play in making the final moves for making meaning.

In the past few decades, communicative language teaching has perhaps been best interpreted by Savignon (2002, 2003, 2007). She proposed the Inverted Pyramid Model (Savignon, 2002) in which she identified the components of communicative competence as grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and sociocultural competence. She reminded us that the four components of communicative competence were interrelated and should not be measured separately (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, 1995; Savignon, 1991). According to her, "the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence" (Savignon, 1991, p. 128). She remarked that communicative competence is a central theoretical concept in CLT. She defined competence as the "interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning" and referred the term 'communicative' to "the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers" (Savignon 1997, p. 202; Savignon, 2007, p. 213). Communicative competence is a dynamic concept (Savignon, 1997), an ability to make meaning, "distinguished from their ability to recite dialogues or to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge" (Savignon, 2007, p. 209). The focus of CLT, thereby, is to "promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events" (ibid.). Savignon stressed that since CLT is a multidisciplinary perspective, it is both an educational and a political issue.

Richards (2006) looked at communicative competence from a different perspective. He defined communicative competence as the ability to master different types of texts,

which involved being able to employ different kinds of spoken and written texts in specific contexts. To distinguish communicative competence from grammatical competence, Richards (2006) explained,

> *"Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge we have of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language. It refers to knowledge of the building blocks of sentences (e.g. parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses, sentence patterns) and how sentences are formed. ..." (Richards, 2006, pp. 2-3)*

Note that Richards expanded communicative competence to include many aspects of language knowledge, such as the use of communication strategies in different types of texts for different purposes according to the setting.

The above conceptualisations of CLT, among others, offer justifications and explications of what communicative competence really is. In order to have a comprehensive understanding of this approach, it would be necessary at this point to map out the definitions and features of CLT.

2.2.2 Definitions and features

A number of theorists and researchers have offered definitions and principles of CLT. Their definitions may diverge but all centre around communicative competence. To the extent that CLT has been adopted extensively in ESL countries around the globe due to its prevalence and popularity as an innovative methodology, there are numerous CLT studies on the perceptions of language teachers (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005; Li, 1984; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999), which evidenced their confusion about different perspectives of the new method. It is therefore required at this point to define and outline the features and principles of CLT in the light of the existing literature.

The appeal of CLT is worldwide but what is meant by CLT? What are the components of CLT? Does it mean teaching speaking only? The answers to these questions can be unravelled by examining CLT with regard to its definitions and

principles. Although various definitions are provided, none is recognised as authoritative (McGroarty, 1984). However, in contrast to an emphasis on form and linguistic structure, CLT is by definition, characterised by a learner-centred, meaningful negotiation in a communicative way in the social context. It is an innovation in methodology and pedagogy that aims to develop learners' communicative competence. The underlying principle of this approach is that a communicatively competent user uses his linguistic knowledge and ability to communicate effectively with an English native speaker.

Theorists who espoused CLT defined it in various ways (Brown, 1994; Howatt, 1984; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1991). Brown (1994) defined CLT to include all components of communicative competence, a functional and notional use of language for meaningful purposes, and authentic use of the language productively and receptively. Howatt & Widdowson (2004) proposed two versions of CLT — the weak and the strong version. The former is based on the assumption that the components of communicative competence can be identified and systematically taught whereas the latter proposes that language is acquired through communication rather than an integration of the structural properties of a language. By engaging in communicative activities in the language classroom such as role-plays, information gap activities, games, and problem-solving tasks, learners acquire communicative skills unconsciously by seeking situational meaning (Schmidt, 1991). That is, learners are not specifically taught the strategies, maxims, and organisational principles that govern communicative language use but are expected to work these out for themselves through extensive communicative tasks. In short, by definition, the focus of CLT is on the learner. The objective of CLT is therefore to prepare learners for real-life communication through meaningful interaction in pair work or group work rather than emphasise structural accuracy. In a CLT activity, an individual learner acquires the language in an assigned task in either pair work or group work. Group work, based on the findings of Madrid's (2002) study, was claimed to be able to raise the students' intensity of motivation.

Notably, Larsen-Freeman (2000) also embraced group work, specifically small group work, in a communicative classroom.

Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) provided insights into the guidelines for a principled CLT approach:

> *"CLT highlights the primary goal of language instruction, namely, to go beyond the teaching of the discrete elements, rules, and patterns of the target language and to develop the learner's ability to take part in spontaneous and meaningful communication in different contexts, with different people, on different topics, for different purposes; that is, to develop the learner's communicative competence" (p. 149).*

Compared to Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell's explication, Littlewood's (1981) definition of CLT took on a more fully communicative view. He claimed that one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it focuses on systematic functional as well as structural aspects of language. He contended that to acquire communicative competence, a learner must attain linguistic competence, develop strategies for communicating meanings effectively, and pay attention to the social meaning of language forms.

Bax (2003) saw communicative language teaching as a corrective to other traditional approaches. Recall that the traditional approaches feature translation, drills and repetition, grammar presentation. By contrast, CLT is student-centred, meaningful and pursues purposeful interaction through language between the learner and his interlocuter or the users of the language. In his article "The end of CLT: a Context Approach to language teaching" (Bax, 2003), Bax claimed that CLT did not recognise the value of the context in which pedagogy takes place. His remarks reminded us that social context is of vital importance to successful language acquisition. However, the widespread of an array of principles and guidelines labeled 'communicative' has understandably led to some uncertainty as to what are and are not essential features of CLT. In this case, it is argued that CLT as the central paradigm in language teaching

may not necessarily be placed by a Context Approach as proposed by Bax.

Ellis (2009) addressed numerous criticisms of TBLT and concluded his observations with the advantages of a TBLT approach, which were arguably relevant to CLT, an alternate form of teaching. Firstly, CLT offers the opportunity for natural learning in the classroom. Secondly, it emphasises meaning over form. Thirdly, it provides learners with a rich-input context. Fourthly, it is "intrinsically motivating" (Ellis, 2009, p. 242). Fifthly, it is both learner-centred and teacher-directed. Also, it is directed at both fluency and accuracy. Lastly, it can be used alongside a traditional approach.

The tenet of CLT is that teaching should aim at learner-centered, communicative functions, rather than merely linguistic ability to manipulate structural language (Brown, 2001; Littlewood, 1981; Widdowson, 1990). Learners should also be provided the opportunities to use the L2 for communicative purposes (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). In contrast to the passive role of students as receivers of knowledge and performers of teacher directions in traditional approaches, CLT proposes that students take on the roles of communicators, negotiators, and contributors of knowledge (Nunan, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In communicative language teaching the language learner is viewed as a partner in learning. He is encouraged to participate in communicative events. Conversely, CLT is against teacher dominance and advocates an equal relationship between the teacher and student. In this respect, CLT defines the role of the teacher as that of a co-communicator and co-learner, a needs analyst, an organiser of resources, a facilitator, a negotiator. (Richards, 2006).

CLT can be seen to stem from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research on language use (Savignon, 1991). CLT claims that the selection and sequencing of what is to be learnt should be determined by the choice of meanings, themes, and functions. CLT emphasises on extensive exposure to the target language through large quantities of input and output, which maximises learners' opportunities for interaction with teachers

and students, and among students themselves. Such negotiation is believed to be vital throughout the acquisition process. Featured by enrichment and flexibility (Wang, 2010), CLT provides practitioners much freedom and ample opportunities to apply and adapt in a flexible way with a goal of enhancing learners' communicative competence.

Following an overall introduction to the features of CLT in general, I now proceed to identify four distinctive features of CLT separately; namely, authentic materials, interaction, learner-centredness, and accuracy vs. fluency, and discuss them individually in the following sections.

Authentic Materials

The concept of authenticity is central to CLT as the nature of language learning is to prepare learners for the real world. In order to parallel real life, it is argued that teaching materials should be authentic as closely as possible to the real world. For now, suffice it to say that one of the characteristics of CLT is the adoption of authentic teaching materials (Dahmardeh, 2009; Nunan, 1991). Authentic materials are defined by Little, Devitt and Singleton (1988) as "materials produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community" (p. 25). In other words, they are not designed for language learners. Examples of authentic materials range from newspaper advice column letters, magazine advertisements, application forms, advertisements, timetables of bus and train schedules, appointment minutes and recipes.

Researchers have stressed the importance of authentic materials within CLT (Berardo, 2006; Peacock, 1997; Richards, 2006). To begin with, it has been documented that authentic materials can be more motivating than artificial materials (Kienbaum, Russell, & Welty, 1986; Little & Singleton, 1989; Peacock, 1997). In this respect, raising learner motivation is one reason researchers encourage the use of authentic materials. Another reason is that authentic materials contain rich cultural information that exposes learners to real language (Richards, 2006). Likewise, Dörnyei (1994) suggests that teachers provide L2 learners with strategies at the learning situation level

to motivate them to incorporate a sociocultural component and to develop learners' cross-cultural awareness at the language level. Moreover, authentic materials usually cater to learner needs (Nunan, 2003). Eventually, they help develop effective learning strategies for listening, reading, speaking and writing (Nunan, 1999).

The importance of authentic materials arises from some researchers' argument that teaching materials should be learner-centred and allow for communication and interaction (Richards, 2006). Others' claim is that "learning objectives should be grounded in some type of real-world discourse: a story, a dialogue/conversation, a cartoon strip with accompanying language, a radio broadcast, a video/film clip, an e-mail message, a letter, a recipe, etc." (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 51) in the case of teaching materials that are contextualised and meaningful to learners (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Researchers also reminded us that teaching materials should not be too difficult as some critics claimed that "authentic materials often contain difficult and irrelevant language" (Richards, 2006, p. 21). Neither should they be too easy as to lower learner motivation (Oxford, 2006). In sum, teaching materials should reflect different dimensions of CLT.

Another area of concern over authentic teaching materials is that of grammar instruction. Millard (2000) urged an integration of grammar instruction into CLT and theorised that the activities should be contextualised so the language resembles natural speech. In the case of reflecting on the language teacher's role, the claim is that a classroom teacher should create, develop and utilise authentic teaching materials that allow meaning making while sustaining learner interests in reflecting how language is used by native speakers in the real world.

Having said that, some teachers perceive the use of authentic materials as a burden (Richards, 2001). The emerging issue therefore is: Why do some language teachers resist using authentic materials and if so, what difficulties do they encounter using them? What is the effect of using artificial materials on learning? Can non-authentic materials be motivating for learners? The answers to these questions can be elicited from Sato and

Kleinsasser's (1999) study whose participants claimed that there was a lack of good materials for communicative instruction. One participating teacher in their study reported in an interview that she did not use textbooks because the textbooks she used were not communicative. However, given the underlying effect of inappropriate teaching materials on teaching and learning, Nunan (2003) stressed the importance of the development of curricula and teaching materials for younger learners. According to him, effective classroom learning tasks in the light of authentic materials provide opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning and take part in meaningful exchange. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) cited a subject in their interview about how students could be motivated to learn and suggested building up the kinds of materials with topics interesting to students. "It appeared that the lack of availability of CLT activities (or time to create them) caused these teachers practically to ignore them." (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999, p. 508).

Unfortunately, Wang (2002) indicated that the current teaching materials in Taiwan have diminished learner interests in EFL learning. In this regard, language teachers are strongly recommended to develop their own materials to meet their students' needs and interests, in particular low-proficiency learners in the vocational education sector as exemplified in this study.

Interaction

Interaction within CLT is perceived by CLT proponents (Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003; Richards, 2006) as a means for achieving successful foreign language learning. As Nunan (2003) noted, "Another important, and related, feature of successful foreign language education is the opportunity for learners to take part in authentic communicative interaction" (p. 608-609). Of particular relevance is the Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun (1993) report, cited by Oxford (2006), on the nature of the negotiation of meaning, which is most likely to trigger successful learning. Similarly, Watson-Gegeo (1988) concurred on such a view that language is acquired through social interaction

when he defined and illustrated the principles of ethnography.

One core assumption of current communicative language teaching proposed by Richards (2006) is that language acquisition is best facilitated when learners are engaged in meaningful interaction. The goals of communicative activities are attained through the students working collaboratively in pairs or in groups. In a CLT activity such as a game, role-play, problem-solving or an information gap activity, meaning is negotiated through interaction in pair or group work (Li, 1998). In fact, the social nature of learning highlights the point of view that learning is a process of social activity that depends upon interaction with others. Given that communication is a defining characteristic of CLT and CLT activities focus on interaction, most classroom tasks are designed to be carried out in pairs or groups. When we reflect on the relationship between classroom activities and real life, we are concerned about the issue of whether classroom activities can provide authentic sources for language learning. In this respect, the role of a language teacher is therefore to provide learners the opportunities to genuinely use the language in real situations rather than performing meaningless patterned drills in the classroom. Hence, good language teachers should be aware of their students' needs and interests and accordingly base their curriculum on them. Although a number of studies (Ellis, 2009; Oxford, 2006; Panda & Stroupe, 2006; Seedhouse, 1999) have offered evidence that gives insights into the ways to increase the opportunities for classroom interaction, there is an insufficient number of studies in CLT literature that documents how teachers actually deal with CLT, especially in the foreign language classroom.

In CLT activities interaction occurs through pair work or group work, whose value lies in its contribution to a marked increase in learner motivation (Richards, 2006). Nunan (1998) contended that group work is essential to any classroom learning. Albeit pair work or group work, it is worthwhile noting that even low proficiency learners benefit from impoverished task-based interaction. Addressing some misunderstandings about TBLT, Ellis advised against a dismissal of even "indexicalized and pidginized"

(Ellis, 2009, p. 229) task-based instruction. This claim is supported by the belief that interaction helps low beginners make use of their limited linguistic resources to develop their strategic competence, leading to acquisitional potential of the learner. This being the case, it does not diminish the pedagogic value of interaction. In sum, Ellis' (2009) view is that more attention should be devoted to the factors that contribute to interaction in the classroom. Apart from the principles of designing tasks and the method of implementation, he reflected on the proficiency level of the students. Ellis seemed to theorise that both beginners and higher level students would benefit from well designed and implemented activities that produce authentic language use in fostering the desired learning outcome.

Learner-centredness

Another feature of the CLT approach is learner-centredness (Savignon, 1991, 1998). Nunan and Lamb (1996) reflected on the key components of a paradigm shift towards CLT and argued that one distinguishing component is greater attention on the role of the learner rather than on the role of the teacher. A learner-centred classroom involves two major components (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006). The first component requires students to take an active role to manage their own learning in a learner-centred classroom. They make decisions on what to learn and how to learn. In a learner-centred curriculum, teachers and students involved themselves in the decision-making process of the content of a curriculum in a collaborative way. The idea of learner-centredness is strongly linked with experiential learning, humanistic psychology and tasked-based language teaching (Nunan & Lamb, 1996) and aims to foster the concepts of self-education, life-long education, and learner autonomy (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006).

Similar implications are noted by Kojima and Kojima (2005), who cited Tudor (1996) to describe learner-centred instruction. They maintained that learner-centredness concerned the learner's humanistic and curriculum design perspective, the practical

necessities of the learner such as learner autonomy and self-direction, and how classroom activities were organised. As such, to promote students' self autonomous learning, teachers no longer take on the traditional roles of knowledge provider or transmitters; rather, the roles of facilitators and teaching material creators as well as "co-learners" (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001, p. 9). This humanistic view as a characteristic of CLT (Wang, 2010) reminded language teachers to provide our students the skills to use a fishing rod rather than merely offering them the tool or even worse directly giving them the fish.

> *Nunan (1995) urged teachers to centre their teaching around their students: "I am not suggesting that student views should be acceded to in all cases. However, I would argue that, at the very least, teachers should find out what their students think and feel about what and how they want to learn." (p. 140)*

Coincidentally, Dahmardeh (2009) drew our attention to 'pupil voice' from the results of several studies. He explained that if teachers know what their students think, they have the chance to implement the learner-centred approach.

In a country where the education system is led by the "teacher dominated chalk and talk" (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, Mori, 2006, p. 2) mode, reversing the student role from that of a passive, obedient one to an active and initiating one would be quite challenging to most teachers. The impact of student-centredness is perhaps best realised by the changes in pedagogy from a traditional method of teaching form to a communicative approach with a functional syllabus focusing on communicative strategies, meaningful interaction and negotiation (Nunan, 1988; Savignon 1997). To this end, the planning and implementation of course content and methodology and evaluation of language courses should be based on student needs, their preferences, learning styles and use. However, Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, and Mori (2006) cautioned that although it would be difficult for language beginners to manipulate their own learning, teachers need to create a pleasant learning environment, design a flexible and adaptable course content, employ authentic teaching materials and methodologies to

develop a learner-centred curriculum that meets a wide range of needs and interest of students.

Accuracy vs. Fluency

Accuracy and fluency are two contrastive notions in communicative language teaching. The importance of both accuracy and fluency has been recognised in L2 pedagogy based on research theories and findings. As Richards (2006) maintained, accuracy and fluency are the ultimate goal of any second language learners. Prior to the discussion of the distinction between the two, here comes their definitions. The definition of the term 'accuracy' is not problematic (Brumfit, 1984). Accuracy aims at developing correct language use. However, it is difficult to define 'fluency' as it has a wide range of definitions (Brumfit, 1984; Richards, 2006). Both Brumfit and Richards looked at fluency from the perspective of language use. To Brumfit, "Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in native-speaker-like language comprehension or production" (Brumfit, 1984, p. 56). However, from Richards' point of view, "Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence" (Richards, 2006, p. 14).

Chambers (1997) provided two definitions of fluency. One definition states that fluency is a synonym of oral proficiency directed to the overall linguistic proficiency. The other definition aims at communicative competence in assessment. Fluency is perhaps one of the most salient features of proficiency in L2. A fluent speaker, in general terms, has a good command of language and can use or speak the language smoothly and effortlessly. Fluency in CLT is interpreted by Chambers as the "effectiveness of language use within the constraints of limited linguistic knowledge" (Chambers, 1997, p. 536). He stresses genuine language use at any level of proficiency in naturally occurring contexts.

Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) addressed teachers' reluctance to use CLT by

promoting automatic fluency and they defined fluency as "the smooth and rapid production of utterances, without undue hesitations and pauses, that results from constant use and repetitive practice" (p. 326). The notion of speed and effortlessness is also identified as two major characteristics of fluency (Chambers, 1997).

In CLT, teachers are encouraged to make tremendous use of group work, specifically small group work. Unlike the traditional approach where accuracy is emphasised at the expense of fluency, in small group activities in the CLT classroom, the focus is on both accuracy and fluency tasks. Fluency and accuracy are commonly perceived as complementary components underlying CLT (Brown, 2001). Accuracy activities such as role-plays, games, and information gap activities not only promote grammar accuracy but can also be used to support fluency (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Richards, 2006). Nonetheless, some researchers (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1972) countered that some of the communicative approaches did not emphasise grammar accuracy. In addressing the essence or features of CLT, its advocates claimed that one of the communicative syllabi was that fluency was primary whereas accuracy was secondary. It could be the case that language teachers tended to put too much stress exclusively on meaning as to overlook accuracy (William, 1995). It can be argued that evidence from both CLT and TBLT classrooms have pointed to the emerging problem of sacrificing accuracy over fluency and communicative success (Skehan, 1996).

Where the features of CLT are concerned, this research now turns to the dichotomies between CLT and the traditional teaching methods in the section that follows to outline a comprehensive blueprint of the opposing approaches.

2.2.3 Communicative language teaching approach vs. traditional teaching methods

Following a detailed account of the development and features of CLT, I now provide a description of the stark contrasts between CLT and traditional teaching methods.

I have explained in an earlier section of this study that traditional teaching methods entail the Audiolingual, Situational Language Teaching, and Grammar Translation methods, which have existed in Taiwan for decades before CLT emerged as a new approach in the early 1970s. In a traditional English reading class using the Grammar Translation approach, for example, the instructor explains the meanings of isolated vocabulary items and texts and translates each sentence into Chinese. In a grammar course the instructor also explains the grammar rules and has his/her students do grammar exercise. In a college English laboratory course listening drills are given. The class is conducted in the learner's native language. The text and grammar points are presented in both English and the learners' native language but little attention is paid to the content of text. The graded syllabus specifies the grammar points and vocabulary items students need to learn from beginning level to advanced level. The teacher does all the talking and the students merely listen, and there is little room for discussion and no interaction between the teacher and the learners. Attention is directed toward reading, translating disconnected sentences from the L2 into L1, memorising vocabulary items and performing grammar drills rather than dealing with any communicative aspects of the target language. All these methods are teacher-centred and focus on patterned repetition drills and memorisation. They give priority to accurate grammar and accurate pronunciation.

Another traditional method that is prevalent in Taiwan is the Audio-Lingual Method. Based on structuralism and Skinner's behaviorism, this method stresses spoken rather than written English. The four skills listening, speaking, reading and writing are learnt in sequence and there is no explicit grammar instruction. In ALM the learner's native language should be avoided to explain new words or grammar rules. Students are trained to practise particular constructs spontaneously. The aim of the ALM is to develop learner communicative competence. While the traditional methods have been dominant and prevalent in most EFL countries, CLT has been common in the ESL classroom and has become widespread and been accepted by more countries in recent

years. In Taiwan especially in colleges and universities where there is an increase in the number of English native-speaking teachers, students have more opportunities to engage in genuine interaction and communication.

Researchers are concerned about the dichotomies between CLT and the traditional teaching methods (Beaumont & Chang, 2010; Kojima and Kojima, 2005). Hideo Kojima and Yuko Kojima (2005), for instance, compared and contrasted traditionalism and CLT with respect to the theory of language and learning, objectives, syllabus, classroom activities, teaching materials, and the role of the teacher and learner. They elaborated on teacher roles in learner-centred communicative EFL instruction in Japan. The summary of their research is given below. (1) The traditional theory of language use states that language is rule-governed whereas CLT is primarily a functional syllabus. (2) In theories of learning, while for traditional approaches language is primarily acquired through a process of habit formation, CLT is based on the assumption that successful language acquisition takes place in meaningful interaction and genuine communication through tasks. (3) Traditional approaches aim to master structures of sound, form and order. In contrast, CLT is learner-centred and it evolves around functional skills and linguistic objectives. (4) The traditional syllabus is graded around phonology, morphology and syntax. CLT, on the other hand, may or may not include structures and functions. It is dependent upon learner needs. (5) In a traditional language classroom there is repetition of pattern drills and memorisation. However, in a CLT classroom meaning is negotiated in pair work or group work interaction. (6) The role of the learner in a traditional classroom is passive. In a CLT activity the learner is an active, participatory negotiator and communicator. (7) Conversely, the role of the teacher in a traditional classroom is a central, dominating and controlling as opposed to that in a CLT classroom as a facilitator, motivator, decision-maker, information-gatherer, "bestower of knowledge" (Brown, 2001, p. 43) and counselor. (8) The teaching materials used in a traditional classroom are teacher-directed. Visual and audio facilities are often used in a language laboratory to aid acquisition. By contrast, authentic

materials are adopted in a CLT classroom to promote communication.

Based on the above illustration of the distinctions between the CLT approach and traditional teaching methods, it can be concluded that CLT contrasts sharply with traditional teaching methods in many respects. Hideo Kojima and Yuko Kojima's observations in the dichotomies between the two draw our attention to the findings of a Taiwan-based study on CLT (Savignon & Wang, 2003), which suggested that the implementation of CLT in Taiwanese colleges and universities was complex (Liu, 2005). Taiwanese English instructors' perceptions (Pan, 2008) and learners' preference and needs towards CLT (Savignon & Wang, 2003) together with a number of limits in the learning environment and teaching materials have made the matter more complicated. Inasmuch as certain limitations may inhibit the adoption of CLT in Taiwan, if teachers are aware of situational constraints, any difficulties can be overcome. Teachers can choose particular methodology, a cautious and eclectic approach, designs and techniques for a foreign language in a specific context.

Whilst the above realisations may render CLT as an extensively and broadly used methodology, no account would be complete without discussing its criticisms. Consequently, it is imperative at this point to delve into the criticisms of CLT that demotivate language teachers from employing it in the classroom.

2.2.4 Criticisms of CLT

CLT is a widespread and acceptable approach in many countries. However, CLT is not without its criticisms. The most famous attack on CLT was perhaps the argument of Michael Swan in the eighties. He published two articles in 1985 (Swan, 1985a, 1985b) in which he queried the syllabus, authenticity, usage and practicality of CLT. He critiqued that CLT did not recognise the vital role of the learner's mother tongue in foreign language teaching (Swan, 1985b). In return, Widdowson (1985), in defence of CLT, claimed that Swan misrepresented the ideas that make up the communicative approach and he "represents them as such in order to make a better target for attack"

(p. 158). He claimed that "Swan's arguments are in themselves contradictory" (p. 158) as he "fails to offer evidence or support for his own position on the theory or practice of ELT, ..." (Widdowson,1985, p. 158) and his attacks on CLT were "so much moonshine and nothing more" (Widdowson, 1985, p. 159).

Across the early millennium, Bax (2003) argued that the dominance of CLT had led to the negligence of the context in which learning took place and called for 'the end of CLT', as entitled in his published article in 2003. He therefore suggested a shift in the central paradigm in language teaching from CLT to context-specific pedagogy.

One line of argument against CLT is that although most underlying principles of the CLT theory claimed that CLT activities involved interesting and stimulating learning tasks, this pedagogy was not fundamentally supportive of the teaching practices and pedagogy in most Asian countries including Taiwan due to cultural differences. It was widely recognised that cultural differences have a decisive part to play in many education issues in Taiwan. However, the long-engrained cultural values and social norms have set constraints on teaching practices. This has a direct relevance to the underlying educational philosophy in many parts of the world especially in Asian countries, where knowledge learning is valued rather than skill development (Ellis, 2009). The education system in Taiwan poses an impediment to the teaching practices of CLT. Amongst the numerous constraints are teachers' resistance and lack of communicative competence, lack of adequate teacher preparation, excessive demands placed upon teachers (Wang, 2008), learners' resistance, large classes (Warden & Lin, 2000), a test-oriented education system, and scant class time which all put limits on teaching and learning practices. Limited resources, a lack of funds, a shortage of teachers, and language courses containing overly large number of students, especially audio-visual classes in the laboratory, constrain the development of a predominantly interactive communicative course. Furthermore, the cultural issue which adds another perspective to the criticism agenda when teaching culture may jeopardise the learner's culture by an overemphasis on the details of the target culture (Hadley, 2001; Rivers,

1981). In fact, teaching culture can be instrumental in shaping learners' communicative competence in both their first language and the target language (Savignon, 2002).

In accordance with authentic materials, some critics argued that while creating materials which were designed around a systematic and guided syllabus is challenging, using them can be a burden for many EFL teachers. Also, it is difficult to obtain authentic materials (Crawford, 2002) and once obtained, they need to spend enormous time developing activities for the materials (Richards, 2001). In addition, some critics claimed that authentic materials might be either too difficult for lower level learners (Belchamber, 2007; Martínez, 2002) or contain unnecessary vocabulary items (Martínez, 2002; Richards, 2001). Belchamber (2007) contended that due to limited language ability, the length and complexity of the utterances of low-proficiency students were rather formulaic and that the limited vocabulary, functions and strategies employed by learners posed constraints to genuine communication.

CLT has also been under criticism for a lack of linguistic guidelines and assessment methods (Celce-Murcia, Dörney & Thurrel, 1997). An overemphasis on message and meaning leads to negligence in the quality of the language in use (Johnson, 2001). Likewise, learner-centredness as an underlying feature of CLT has come under attack by researchers who queried the advantage of pupils taking the dominant role and the drawback of the teacher-fronting mode (O'Neill, 1991).

Littlewood (2007) looked into the criticisms of CLT and TBLT. He was concerned that in implementing CLT and TBLT in the Asian classroom, low proficiency students' avoidance of using communication activities and excessive dependence on their mother tongue did not facilitate pupil-centred learning.

To the extent that CLT is under criticisms by theorists and linguists, sources of such criticisms may evolve from the misconceptions about CLT. The fact that CLT is recognised as an effective methodology by a few Taiwanese teachers (Su, 2002; Wang, 2008) does not exempt CLT from being queried regarding its role, components and principles, thereby its misconceptions. Such being the case, what would teachers need to

know to go about their CLT instructional practices? If the existing misconceptions strike one as a hindrance to the implementation of CLT, the top priority would then be clearing up the misunderstandings.

2.2.5 Studies on Communicative Language Teaching

CLT studies have gained interest and prominence among researchers and practitioners for the past decades. Although there have been reports of the successes of implementing communication-based instruction in the ESL contexts (Min, 2008; Wang, 2008; Wang, 2009), some studies (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Chang & Goswami, 2011; Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf & Moni, 2006) have indicated problems with such an approach resulting in little or no success at all. This section presents successful and unsuccessful examples of the CLT approach, in both ESL and EFL settings, with a focus on EFL teachers' commonly held reservations about communication-based instruction.

CLT in the ESL/EFL Context

CLT as an innovative approach and methodology has been undertaken for decades globally but the findings of various CLT studies may vary depending on the setting, age, and language level of learners, learner needs and interest as the education systems, cultures, teaching and learning environments differ markedly in the East and West. As surmised by most, Western-based pedagogy would and should undergo hindrance when being implemented in a non-Western EFL country.

Results of a plethora of studies (Anderson, 1993; Chung & Huang, 2009; Ellis, 1996; Li, 1998; LoCastro, 1996; Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, Mori 2006; Sato, 2002; Shamin, 1996; Wang & Savignon, 2001) indicated that the implementation of CLT in EFL settings was challenging and unsuccessful. What made it so difficult to implement CLT in the EFL classrooms? There have been implications from studies concerning the factors leading to unsuccessful implementation of CLT.

The cited constraints in reports (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989) about CLT in China, Japan, South Korea, Vietnam included a lack of appropriate texts and materials, big class size, limited instructional time, teachers' lack of English proficiency and sociolinguistic and strategic competence, examination pressure, difficulties in evaluating students via CLT, and cultural factors (Chen 1988; Coleman, 1996). Several studies have similar findings with regard to the barriers to CLT. Ellis (1994) conducted a study in Vietnam. He identified class size, grammar-based examinations, and a lack of exposure to authentic language as the constraints in adopting CLT. Similar conclusions can be drawn from Kirkpatrick's (1984) study in Singapore, which suggested that grammar-based instruction was a barrier in adopting CLT in Singapore. Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) examined the factors in EFL teachers' resistance to using CLT and found that the primary reason Japanese teachers failed to embrace CLT was that they did not see the true value of communicative activities. They maintained that it was hard for them to regard role-plays, games and problem-solving activities as 'the real thing', 'the big thing' since they had been accustomed to teaching grammar rules and pattern drills. Coincidentally, Li (1984) who investigated Chinese learners believed that this was the same reason Chinese teachers turned away from CLT.

How teachers were discouraged from adopting CLT has been documented in the literature (Li, 1998, 2001; Littlewood, 2007; Cook, 2009; Shim & Baik, 2004). Those studies that dealt with CLT innovations in EFL contexts investigated teacher or learner perceptions towards CLT, others reviewed specific teaching contexts and the adoption of CLT in such contexts; but other studies (Hung, 2009; Karim, 2004; Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Mori 2006) recognised the difficulties in implementing CLT. They believed that teacher perceptions were central to the success or failure of an innovation (Li, 1998). It has been documented in studies (Ozsevik, 2010; Zou, & Cai, 2006) that Asian teachers were reluctant to adopt the CLT approach despite acknowledging its value. In the case that they were not ready to apply this new approach to teaching, neither were they trained or knew how to use it, let alone the fact that they lacked resources and

assistance to teach CLT.

Nunan (2003) pinpointed that teachers' poor understanding of the realisation of CLT and inadequate teacher preparation make CLT implementation challenging. Li (1998) conducted a case study to investigate secondary school English teachers' perceptions towards CLT in South Korea. His study echoed similar implications of other studies undertaken in EFL countries, which shared some common characteristics of English teaching backgrounds. His subjects pointed out that their deficiency in spoken English, strategic and sociolinguistic competence in English, and a lack of training limited their applying CLT to classroom practice. Similarly, Jong (2006) explored Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of TBLT, an extension of CLT, and found that Korean teachers demonstrated fear of adopting TBLT due to a lack of confidence and insufficient knowledge or techniques to apply it to instructional classroom practice. However, Thompson (1996) contended that teachers' resistance to CLT may be attributed to their misconceptions about the approach. In addition, there were reports of the outcomes of a few investigations on learners' views on CLT (Savignon & Wang, 2003; Shamin, 1996). Understanding what students think would help identify learners' resistance to CLT as a potential factor.

Littlewood (2007) directed our attention to the difficulties of implementing CLT in East Asian classrooms as well as the extent to which large class size could serve as a constraint that impeded the promotion of such an approach. Class size is reported frequently in the literature (Hung, 2009; Jin, Singh, & Li, 2005; Jong, 2006; Karim, 2004; Nam, 2005; Rao, 2002; Wang, 2008) by EFL teachers to have hindered their adoption of the CLT approach. For example, Gorsuch (2000) interviewed 876 Japanese EFL teachers to derive the various influences that acted on their instruction. She pointed out that class size contributed to the teacher's strong control over classroom activities. Jong (2006) also remarked that problems emerged as a result of large classes in task-based group work in Korea.

The situation in China is similar. Burnaby and Sun (1989) investigated the

adoption of CLT in China, where teachers reported encountering constraints including big class size, lack of teaching resources, teachers' deficiencies in oral English and strategic competence, and the inhibition of the traditional local teaching context. A similar study by Anderson (1993) also revealed that the implementation of CLT in China was impeded by a lack of trained teachers, appropriate teaching materials, and assessment.

One of the reported causes for most Asian language teachers not to use CLT frequently is that CLT activities take up too much preparation time for them (Chau & Chung, 1987). In the same vein, Sato and Kleinsasser's (1999) study documented Japanese teachers' reluctance to promote CLT and how they avoided it. Teachers in their survey revealed that they did not have sufficient time to implement CLT activities. Time-consuming activities had imposed a challenge on their teaching practices.

Despite the above, reports (Butler, 2005; Wang & Savignon, 2001) abounded on the positive effects of the CLT approach in the EFL context. For instance, the results of Lochana and Deb's (2006) project on high school students in India demonstrated that task-based teaching, an offshoot of CLT, did enhance the language proficiency of learners. Note that the results of some studies had implications in how students of different English proficiency levels benefited from the communicative teaching approach. On the one hand, Barshi and Healy's (1998) study reported how intermediate level and above learners benefited from the CLT approach the most and Wang (2002) argued that students with low abilities may not benefit from CLT; on the other hand, the outcomes of other research (Savignon, 1971, 1972) demonstrated that even beginners responded well to meaning-focused classroom activities.

As many of the above EFL countries share similar cultural, historical and educational backgrounds, it is understandable that the difficulties encountered and how teachers perceive and interpret CLT would become a manifestation of a common mode. Since this study addresses the Taiwan setting, an attempt will be made in the next section to focus primarily on studies carried out in Taiwan with reference to teachers'

perceptions of and students' attitudes toward CLT, its success or failure coupled with a discussion of the Taiwan education system that contributes to the difficulties of adopting CLT in Taiwan.

CLT in Taiwan

In general, the overall education system in Taiwan clashes with the implementation of CLT. The traditional teaching method is based on rote learning in contrast to the Western based communicative language teaching method (Bax, 2003). As traditional Taiwan pedagogy is typical of the Asian EFL education system, after long-term immersion in the same approach, it is likely that Taiwanese English teachers are not ready to implement CLT due to a lack of knowledge and of skills and training in CLT (Chang, & Goswami, 2011).

Since CLT received a great deal of attention in Taiwan, traditional approaches have lost their identities in the classroom. Taiwanese teachers and learners have made changes in their perceptions of effective language teaching and learning (Yang, 2001). To promote CLT in Taiwan, the Taiwan MOE has strived to make changes in education in all levels, expending time, efforts and resources on curricula, updating English syllabuses, designing communication-based English textbooks and skill-oriented examinations, and enhancing teachers' knowledge of language theories and pedagogies (Adamson & Morris, 1997; Hu, 2001). Details of governmental policies, initiatives and curricular reform have been stated in an earlier section in this study. Regardless of the above, obstacles to implementing CLT in Taiwan remained documented (Chung & Huang, 2009; Hung, 2009; Wang 2002) given that attempts on curricular innovations based on CLT in EFL settings seemed to be scant (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005) and had generally proven difficult (Ellis, 1996; Shamin, 1996).

Although Taiwanese teachers' beliefs about CLT remain a mystery in the literature due to a dearth of information concerning how they make sense of it, some have been found to reflect their differing conceptions to CLT (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Crawford,

2001; Su, 2002; Wang, 2008). Teachers' attitudes and beliefs about the nature of teaching and learning take on tremendous importance (Gorsuch, 2000; Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Shim & Baik, 2004). For example, Wang's (2008) study has reflected the recent trends and challenges facing CLT teaching in Taiwan. She surveyed teacher educators and addressed learner needs in the CLT classrooms and teacher education programmes. On the other hand, Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) cited Richard's (1996) work to relate to the difficulty of teachers changing their beliefs about new methods. They mentioned that "teachers are recalcitrant and do not like to change" (p. 110), which was consistent with Wang's remark that "more than 80 percent of Taiwanese teachers are unwilling to accept new ideas about teaching" (Wang 2002, p. 143). Unfortunately, for those who accept innovations, many feel frustrated at adopting CLT activities in the language classroom. Where frustration is concerned, there is limited research on the difficulties of implementing CLT in Taiwan. However, it can be explained by the results of Cheng and Dörney's (2007) study which painted a clear picture of the obstacles to the implementation of CLT in Taiwan. According to them, what caused CLT instruction to be more challenging, as one participating Taiwanese teacher in their study revealed in an interview, was the very wide gap in the English ability of learners in the teacher's language classes. This is coincidentally in parallel with the results of my subjects' TOEIC listening and reading tests in the present study, which reflected a wide chasm in their English proficiency.

On the part of the teacher, the teacher's linguistic competence, pedagogical expertise, and classroom management skills are reported by some Taiwanese teachers to be in high demand as CLT teachers (Butler, 2004). Additionally, adopting CLT activities that are time-consuming and labourous bears a heavier load to the already busy teaching schedule of most Taiwanese teachers. This being the case, an interesting, stimulating task-based language classroom has to give way to "dull", "parrot learning" (Wang, 2002, p. 17) that is deeply embedded in the Taiwanese teaching context.

Having said that, the teacher factor is definitely not alone. The learner's resistance

to participate in CLT activities is also observed to be a key barrier to the implementation of CLT in Taiwan (Chung & Huang, 2009; Savignon & Wang, 2003). Chung and Huang (2009) explored student attitudes and perceptions toward the implementation of CLT and concluded that the challenge of implementing CLT in Taiwan lay in an intensive exam-driven culture and society. In a country that values the outcome of learning rather than its process *per se*, promoting CLT in Taiwan has become an increasingly strenuous task.

After an introduction to CLT, I now proceed to Task-based Teaching, a development within the broader CLT approach.

2.3 Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), an extension of CLT, is a current methodology that aims at developing learners' communicative competence. In this section I first define 'task'. Then, I address task types and their core components. Next, the framework of TBI is discussed, followed by its criticisms and reactions to this approach.

2.3.1 Definitions of 'Task'

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) or task-based instruction (TBI), one of the latest methodological realisations of CLT, introduces the concept of learning through tasks. It is regarded as a development, an extension within CLT to achieve the same communicative goal. 'Tasks' are the central components in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2009), but the first question that pops up is: 'What is a task'?

Ellis (2009) pointed out that there was no single definition to the task-based teaching approach as various definitions of TBLT have been provided by theorists. Multiple versions of task-based teaching (TBT) existed, all centred around 'task' as a basic unit for course design or a lesson plan. Although various definitions of task are

found in the works of different researchers (Ellis, 2003; Oxford, 2006; Prabhu, 1987; Richards, 2006; Skehan, 1996, 2003; Swan, 2005), they are not without their problems (Ellis, 2009).

Here is Skehan's (1998) definition of 'a task': "A task is an activity in which meaning is primary, there is a problem to solve and relationship to real-world activities, with an objective that can be assessed in terms of an outcome" (Skehan, 1998, p. 95). Ellis (2003) also offered a definition of a task: "Tasks are activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use" (Ellis, 2003, p. 3). Whereas Ellis (2009) claimed that "tasks aim to involve learners in processing both semantic and pragmatic meaning" (p. 227), Skehan argued that in a given task, learners used their linguistic and non-linguistic resources to process the semantic meaning – "the notional meanings decoded in the lexis and grammar of a language" and the pragmatic meaning – "the way language is used in natural contexts of use" (Ellis, 2009, p. 227) of utterances. Hence, a defining feature of a task is that "All tasks are designed to instigate the same kind of interactional process (such as the negotiation of meaning, scaffolding, inferencing, and monitoring) that arise in naturally occurring language use" (ibid.).

Nunan (2006) set out some principles of TBLT in the Asian context. He pointed out that although traditional methods were adopted in most Asian countries, the concept of 'task' "has influenced educational policy-making in both ESL and EFL settings" (p. 14). He also looked at "task" from a pedagogical perspective and cited a few researchers to define 'a pedagogical task'. According to him, a pedagogical task is "any activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language" from the perspective of a pedagogic orientation (Nunan, 1991, p. 280). According to Nunan, a pedagogical task is a needs-based approach that emphasises learning to communicate through interaction that focuses on meaning rather than on form by using authentic texts. The aim of a pedagogical task is therefore to link classroom learning with language use in the natural environment. This is echoed by Ellis's (2003) definition of a 'task': "A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to

the way language is used in the real world. ..." (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). Given the principles and practices of a pedagogical task, Nunan defined a "task" as follows:

> *" ... a task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the interaction is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form." (Nunan, 2006, p. 17)*

In brief, various definitions have led to the manifestation that a task that is performed in the classroom requires an L2 learner to achieve an outcome resulting from the process controlled by the teacher. After reviewing definitions of 'task', it is now time to delve into the types and components of 'task'.

2.3.2 Task Types and Components

With regard to the variations of tasks, Littlewood (2004) distinguished between 'communication tasks' and 'enabling tasks'. Whereas in the former the learner's attention is on meaning, the focus of the latter is on linguistic perspectives. Later Littlewood (2007) urged that some conceptual uncertainties in relation to CLT and TBLT need to be resolved. He pointed out that the most serious uncertainty was that of the definition of 'task'. According to him, teachers in many EFL studies had misconceptions about CLT and found it hard to interpret a task. In this respect, reference was made to what a task really was and was not, and what activities were included. Since the definition of task is 'fuzzy' (Richards, 2005, p. 31), "unclear" (Littlewood, 2007, p. 247), it is necessary to clarify it here. Littlewood (2007) quoted the definition in the Hong Kong Curriculum for English: "Tasks are defined as activities in which learners are provided with purposeful contexts where they can learn and use English for meaningful communication" (Curriculum Development Council 2002, p. 24).

In contrast to tasks, non-tasks are what some researchers termed 'exercises' (Ellis, 2003; Nunan 1999), which refer to "activities in which learners focus upon and practise

specific elements of knowledge, skills and strategies needed for the task" (Curriculum Development Council 1999, p. 44). Such definitions of communicative tasks and non-communicative exercises, in Littlewood's position, were neither clear nor effective, rather "oversimplified" (p. 247) as a conceptual relevance.

The scope of tasks is broad. The key task types contain "problem-solving, decision-making, opinion-gap or opinion exchange, information-gap, comprehension-based, sharing personal experiences, attitudes and feelings, basic cognitive processes and ordering/sorting, language analysis, narrative, reasoning-gap, question-and-answer, structured and semi-structured dialogues, role-plays and simulations" (Oxford, 2006, p. 101). Task types, according to Oxford, also encompass everyday functions and may involve multiple skills and sub-skills.

Ellis (2009) proposed four key precepts for a task. He defined TBLT, provided criteria for it and made a distinction between a 'task' – a focused task and an unfocused task, and a 'situational grammar exercise'. According to Ellis, TBLT stressed functional language use. In the sense that they are "input-providing" and "output-prompting" (p. 224), many tasks are integrative as they provide opportunities for learners to engage in communication which involves more than two language skills. A task plays the role of creating contexts for natural language use. The underlying principle of TBLT is that language learning is most successful in a contextualised setting as opposed to a structural syllabus (Ellis, 2009). TBLT proposes that it creates contexts in which learners use their linguistic resources to communicate, to engage in meaningful and purposeful interaction.

With reference to the components of a task, a task entails input, goals, activities, setting, and roles for both teachers and learners (Nunan, 1989). It also comprises procedure and specific outcome (Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 1998). TBLT is a learner-centred language learning process that promotes communication and social interaction rather than an outcome achieved by a focus on linguistic form.

The discussion over task types and its components leaves a great deal of room for

an exploration of the framework of task-based instruction, which leads us to the next section.

2.3.3 Framework of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is an approach drawn extensively on the principles of CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) in response to the limitations of the traditional approach on research into SLA (Ellis, 2003). In TBI, students collaborate and engage in communicative tasks through pair work and group work that require them to comprehend, produce, or interact in authentic language.

Jane Willis (1996) proposed a model for Task-based Learning (TBL), which was outlined in her book. Based on her model, TBL contains three stages. In the pre-task stage, the teacher introduces a topic and the students practise using the words or phrases essential during the implementation of the main task. This stage is then followed by the main task stage where learners perform the task in pairs or small groups. They practise verbally or in written form and in the final stage different aspects of language components are highlighted.

Richards (2006) distinguished TBI from traditional teaching approaches such as the PPP approach – presentation, practice, and production (Skehan, 1998). Although he saw TBI as a "vague" (p. 35) methodology and argued that "there is little evidence that it works any more effectively than the PPP approach it seeks to replace" (2006, p. 35), some researchers (Ellis, 2006b; Skehan, 1996) claimed that TBI is at an advantage over the aforementioned PPP model in that in TBI all four skills are integrated and the learners are led from accuracy to fluency. In so doing, negotiation of meaning takes place in real communicative tasks. Be it problem-solving, role-playing or a reading text, learners engage themselves in meaningful, motivating activities.

The relevance of TBI is reflected in the works of SLA researchers and teacher educators (Ellis, 2009; Seedhouse, 1999; Sheen, 2004; Swan, 2005). Classroom practices based on task-based models and approaches in the eighties (Nunan, 1989;

Prabhu, 1987) are developed into cycles of pre-task preparation, task performance, and post-task feedback throughout the nineties (Skehan, 1996). Also noted is that since the promotion of TBLT in the 1990s, policies and syllabuses have moved towards task-based instruction in the East Asian classrooms (Littlewood, 2007; Nunan, 2003). Into the millennium, TBLT has been re-examined by theorists and researchers from different perspectives (Jong, 2006). Techniques and activities are re-oriented and tasks are redefined and given more weight.

2.3.4 Criticisms and reactions

Although task-based language teaching has drawn extensively on research into SLA for the past twenty years (Eckerth, 2008; Ellis, 2003; Garcia Mayo, 2007; Nunan, 1989, 2004; Prabhu, 1987; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Skehan, 1998) and its advocates include researchers and educators worldwide (Ellis, 2009), criticisms of TBLT set in. The criticisms stem from those researchers who favour a more traditional approach. The critiques include a misunderstanding of what a 'task' really is, and of the theoretical rationales that inform TBLT. Ellis (2009) addressed a number of criticisms of TBLT and the advocates' misunderstandings of TBLT. He cautioned that the misunderstandings about TBLT arose from an unclearly defined definition to distinguish it from other instructional activities. Additionally, theorists and researchers argued that TBLT was not practical in Asian countries in that teachers in the Asian context encountered problems implementing TBLT (Butler, 2005; Carless, 2004; Ellis, 2009), most of whom adhered to a traditional approach that was obviously different from TBLT (Li, 1998). As sketched earlier in this section, TBI is regarded as a 'vague' methodology. According to Richards, there are problems with its effectiveness, criteria for selecting and sequencing tasks, and the issue of language accuracy in conjunction with the content and outcomes.

Although Widdowson (2003) critiqued that the criteria for defining tasks were explicitly loose and that TBLT overemphasised 'authentic' language use, one of the findings of Jong's (2006) study on Korean teachers' perception towards task-based

instruction revealed that materials were not the major reason teachers avoided using TBLT. This is mainly because the material factor was less revealing compared to the other challenges the Korean teachers had to overcome, including fear of "assessment, competition, and the difficulty of the task" (Jong, 2006, p. 202). As any language approach must come with a language test that measures the learning outcome (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997), the participating teachers in Jong's study, however, had difficulty assessing their students' task-based performance, which posed as one of the major reasons they avoided implementing TBLT in the classroom. In the case that new forms of assessment could replace the traditional ones, Jacobs and Farrell (2003) suggested that language teachers use multiple forms of assessment such as interviews, journals, portfolios, and observation to reflect what students could actually do in a second or foreign language classroom.

Nonetheless, it is often the case that, voiced current concerns and practices in Asian countries such as Taiwan may be incompatible with public assessment demands. Many EFL teachers recognised that TBLT did not prepare their students for the form-based examinations which determine their educational future (Littlewood, 2007). The high-stakes examinations, arisen from the demands of student and parent expectations and government recommendations, provide a perspective on an important constraint, among others, regarding the use of TBLT in the Asian context.

In the literature, there have been studies (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005; Jong, 2006; Li, 1989; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) to reflect teachers' differing reactions to TBLT. Looking into teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and practices regarding TBLT will help gain an insight into how teachers make sense of teaching and learning. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) investigated Japanese teachers' beliefs and knowledge and their practices in an Australian setting. They cited Richard's (1996) work to relate to the difficulty of teachers changing their beliefs and practices. The reason they did not like to change was probably due to the fact that they were not ready to change their roles as 'tyrants'.

Given the above, it is not difficult to understand that in Taiwan where values of obedience and authority are still pervasive, promoting TBLT has become a tremendously challenging task. Before we move forward to the issue of motivation, a recap on CLT and TBLT is necessary to detangle the two conceptualisations.

2.4 Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Teaching

With the advent of various forms of communicative teaching approaches in the 1970s, ESL and EFL teachers, in particular those in East Asia (Nunan, 2003) have been urged to move from CLT to TBLT. For the past 20 years the notion of learning through tasks has gained prominence in East Asian countries (Littlewood, 2007). As Littlewood pointed out (2007), "there is not any discontinuity between CLT and TBLT" (p. 243). TBLT is a "development within the communicative approach" (p. 243). It is a methodology, an extension of CLT that is focused on classroom processes. It makes strong claims for the use of tasks in course planning and designing a syllabus. 'Tasks' are regarded as basic units around which a course is planned and organised. Through creating interactional instructional tasks, teachers engage their students in meaningful negotiation and develop their communicative competence.

Littlewood (2007) outlined and suggested a five-category framework along a continuum of classroom activities to CLT teachers in Asian countries. The underlying relevance of Littlewood's framework was provided when he pointed out the reason why CLT and TBLT had both been rejected often in East Asian countries. The five major concerns related to the issues of "classroom management, avoidance of English, minimal demands on language competence, incompatibility with public assessment demands, and conflict with educational values and traditions (Littlewood, 2007, pp. 243-245).

In the intricate web of the teaching and learning profession, teachers, researchers and practitioners have been trying out and steadily improving their capacity in search of

an appropriate approach for their pupils. Nonetheless, no approach would be lent credence to its value without coming to the aid of motivating our pupils as motivation is a key to learning. It is therefore necessary at this point to develop a separate section on 'motivation', which has garnered tremendous attention over the course of decades of research.

2.5 Motivation

In this section I first define motivation, in relation to its provenance in psychology and its development into language learning in education. Then I present motivation theories and models.

In the field of ESL/EFL, there is an affluent body of research studies (Ames & Archer, 1988; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008) examining the relationships between the learner affective variables and learner achievement or English proficiency. Among many variables, motivation is perhaps the most frequently explored theme, such as anxiety, confidence, and attitude toward the learning situation (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 2002). The word 'motivation' is originally a Latin word "movere", which means 'to move' (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). In this sense, motivation is highly connected to effort and action. In the context of language learning, when a learner is motivated, he is moved to learn a second or foreign language. He shows interest in the materials used in class. He demonstrates persistence with the learning task and a higher level of concentration and enjoyment. According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), "the idea of movement is reflected in such commonsense ideas about motivation as something that gets us going, keeps us moving and helps us get jobs done" (p. 3). Motivation explains human behaviour and thoughts. It is a very important term in psychology and language education. In the latter a large body of research has been undertaken in the area of motivation to look into the cause of success or failure in learning. More and more researchers are concerned about the pedagogical implications of motivation research.

Motivation in psychology and education is interrelated and interdependent. Since the inception of motivation research in education, L2 motivation research has undergone shifts with regard to the relationship between theory and practice and its relationship to SLA. In the sections that ensue, I explore the origin and development of motivation in psychology in connection with second/foreign language education, with an emphasis on major motivation models.

2.5.1 Early research on motivation

The early motivation research ranged from Murray's (1938) theory on human needs, McClelland's Achievement Motive Theory (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953) to Atkinson's (1957) constructs, which was later reintroduced by Eccles and Wigfield (2002) as an expectancy-value model, all of which posited human needs. Today the need for achievement is still relevant in motivation research. In fact, based on the Socio-educational Model of Motivation (Gardner, 1985), there is a reciprocal relationship between motivation and achievement.

Additionally, Elliot, McGregor and Thrash's (2002) need for competence is deemed essential to the psychological needs of an individual. More research linked to the cognitive and socio-cultural factors is also realised in terms of learner action and behavior, intentions, value and affects. The expectancy-value can also be realised by the Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1986, 1992, 2000), which posits that all achievement outcomes result from three basic components: locus, controllability and stability.

The self-efficacy construct is a social cognitive theory which postulates how individuals place judgments on his/her own capabilities to take actions to achieve goals can influence his/her achievement outcome. Consequently, an understanding of the factors that affect students' learning is essential for the classroom teacher to engage his students in tasks to enhance their level of motivation.

2.5.2 Gardner's model

For the past fifty years motivation has been identified by researchers as a key factor for successful language learning (Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre, Clément & Noels, 1998). Initiated by Gardner and Lambert (1959), the Gardnerian motivation theory which profoundly influences several future researchers is developed from a social and psychological perspective and is directed toward an educational dimension. The term "motivation" is a broad concept, "a very complex phenomenon with many facets" (Gardner, 2007, p. 10) that cannot be easily defined. Gardner characterised a motivated individual as "... the motivated individual is goal directed, expends effort, is persistent, is attentive, has desires (wants), exhibits positive affect, is aroused, has expectancies, demonstrates self-confidence (self-efficacy), and has reasons (motives)" (p. 10). Ever since Gardner and Lambert's (1959) first investigation on English-French students' motivation in the L2 context, socio-educational models of L2 acquisition have emerged in motivation research (Gardner, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) as a mainstream. In order to assess the subjects' L2 (the learning of French in Canada) motivation, Gardner and Lambert designed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), a measurement of affective variables, which have been used by a myriad of subsequent second and foreign motivation researchers.

Gardner's model with a socio-educational focus postulates that language learning is a dynamic process in which affective variables influence achievement. Among the different classes of variables, motivation has been recognised as one of the key factors that determines second language acquisition. Motivation is associated with an individual's values, perceptions, intentions, attitudes, goals, and even personality. According to Gardner (1985), motivation is a much more important predictor than ability and aptitude in successful language learning. It is a drive that sustains and raises our interests and directs our behaviour to achieve a certain goal. Whilst there may be interest in achieving a goal, an action to instigate that goal should be taken and effort

expended is required.

In the 1990s a shift from the paradigm of social psychology to an educational focus has urged researchers to explore the construct of language learning motivation from different perspectives. The shifting views of L2 motivation from a single psychological construct (Krashen 1981) to a dichotomous socio-educational construct (Gardner, 1985) and a multi-factorial construct have helped researchers identify several social, cognitive and affective factors that motivate learners to learn in a variety of learning contexts.

A large body of research in recent decades has evidenced how motivation can affect L2 learning (Carless, 2004; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Elliott, Hufton, Willis & Illushiin, 2005; Gardner, 2007, 2010). Many subsequent studies were influenced by Gardner and Lambert's (1959, 1972) theory. For instance, Dörnyei (1990b) provided insights into the psychological perspectives on human behaviour when he envisaged the idea that "every different psychological perspective on human behaviour is associated with a different theory of motivation ..." (Dörnyei, 1990b, p. 72). According to Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic (2004), an important feature and basic premise of other models is the concept of integrative motivation and the identification with the second language community in the learning process. Based on their ideas, a motivated individual, in a broad concept, identifies with the target language community, wants to become proficient in the target language, and is willing to exert effort in learning the language. In other words, the three components of motivation — the desire to achieve a goal, attitude toward the target language and efforts expended on it — are indispensable to achieving an outcome (Gardner, 1985). After all, the goal of becoming a millionaire is not achievable for a would-be millionaire unless efforts are expended in taking actions to attain this outcome. This example of Gardner is in congruence with Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) example of day dreamers, whose "daydreams" (wishes and desires) would never be accomplished unless they are transformed into "goals" and "intentions" to become "achievements" (p. 52). Later several researchers including Dörnyei have highlighted

the significance of efforts expended on the part of the language learner and have associated them with motivation and language learning (Dörnyei, 2001; Hufton, Elliott, & Illushin, 2002; Yang, Zhang, & Wang, 2009).

Gardner and Lambert (1959) further argued that there are two types of language learning motivation: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Existing research studies have raised concerns and disputes as to the effect of each kind of motivation on achievement. The types of motivation and the distinction between them will be discussed later. Now is the time to examine the relationship of motivation to English proficiency.

2.5.3Motivation and English proficiency

Due to the primary concern of education worldwide in enhancing learner academic performance (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000) and the fact that there is a positive relationship between motivation and achievement (Clément, 1980; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Ellis, 1994; MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998; Noels & Clément, 1996; Oller, 1978; Oxford, 1996; Gardner, 1985, 2007), much of the research on individual differences in SLA has reported the effects of affective variables on achievement or proficiency such as motivation, attitudes and anxiety. As Gardner and Masgoret (2003) remarked,

> *"The motivated individual expends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure, makes attributions concerning success and/or failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals"*
> *(Gardner & Masgoret, 2003, p. 173).*

Gardner (1985, 2000) expanded motivation to include integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation but claimed that motivation was the key affective variable contributing to proficiency in acquiring a second language. He stressed that "the

acquisition of an L2 cannot take place unless the educational context provides, in addition to cognitively adequate instructional practices, sufficient inspiration and enjoyment to build up continuing motivation in the learners" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 719).

As it was mentioned earlier, in the literature a number of hypotheses have been conceptualised regarding the relationship between motivation and second language acquisition. Gardner and Masgoret (2003) conducted research to examine the role of motivation in second language acquisition. Their research was driven by Gardner's (1985, 2000) socio-educational model of second language acquisition and made use of the AMTB to measure the major components of the model. In Gardner's socio-educational model, a distinction was made between two categories of attitudes, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. Their model posited that an individual's learning motivation was directly related to achievement in second language acquisition.

Gardner (2007) has recently examined the role of motivation in second language acquisition. In Gardner's socio-educational model of second language acquisition, the individual's motivation is responsible for achievement. Based on Gardner's socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985, 2010), Masgoret and Gardner (2003) conducted meta analysis to examine the correlation between motivation and achievement and concluded that motivation had a greater effect on second language achievement than did other attitudinal variables. It was therefore proposed by Gardner that motivation is the major affective factor influencing achievement (Gardner, 1979; Gardner & Smythe, 1975).

Gardner (2007) considered motivation from both the educational and cultural context. The latter is represented by the learner's attitudes, beliefs, personality traits, expectations about the target language whereas the former is considered in terms of the system where the learner is registered in the classroom situation. The two contexts have an effect on one another and both play important roles in an individual's motivation. To clear his own doubts and those of other researchers about the similarities or dichotomies

of motivations in EFL and ESL settings (Warden & Lin, 2000), Gardner extended his study on motivation to six non-Canadian contexts in one project where he arrived at consistent findings of the positive correlation between motivation constructs and foreign language acquisition. Note that among the six correlations of variables, motivation was the highest correlate, indicating that the subjects' level of motivation was the most influential factor in determining their success or failure in learning a foreign language. Gardner concluded that both educational and cultural contexts had a direct effect on motivation, hence language achievement.

There is a substantial body of other research (Gardner, 2007; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Warden & Lin, 2000) that evidences motivation as a major affective variable contributing to achievement in learning a second language. This notion has prompted researchers to conduct more studies on the relationship between motivation and achievement (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Su & Wang, 2009; Warden & Lin, 2000). Su and Wang (2009) conducted a study on senior high school students' motivation to improve their English performance in China. The results of their study indicated that motivation had a close relationship with learner performance. A number of other studies also examined the relationships between motivation and achievement and confirmed the correlation between the two (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Wang, 2008). For instance, Dahmardeh (2009) explored English language teaching in Iran and summarised eighteen principles of CLT. He concluded that "Motivation is central to foreign/second language proficiency" (p. 72).

Another somewhat differing motivation model that explains the relationships between motivation and achievement is the process model of L2 motivation proposed by Dörnyei and Otto (1998). In L2 motivation research there is a shift in scope from a product-oriented to that of a process-oriented focus through the 70s, 80s and 90s. In their model motivation is viewed as a dynamic process rather than a mere static product within the classroom context (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009). This new trend

carried towards the millennium when concepts from psychology, sociology, education and other fields were integrated to continue having an impact on the investigations of L2 motivation. However, the shift in motivation research highlights the empirical investigations of teaching and learning in the classroom context, which unravels how students may become motivated in their learning process. In sum, the results of many studies have yielded implications more relevant to the classroom environment, which was already discussed earlier in this section.

2.5.4 Learner motivation in Taiwan

As education and academic achievement are highly valued by Taiwanese parents and the Taiwan government (Chang, 2008), the issue of learner motivation has been a big concern to language teachers given that a lack of motivation is a major variable that inhibits successful English learning in Taiwan (Wang, 2002).

Taiwanese students' learning motivation was evidenced in a few research findings. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) quoted Cortzzi and Jin's (1996) conclusion that Taiwanese learners "display a strong tendency to be dependent on the teachers' instructions, show little initiative in participating in group discussion and often lack critical or reflective thinking" (2007, p. 170). Similar observations can be found in Warden and Lin's (2000) study on passive and dependent Taiwanese learners, whose learning motivation was reflected in their typical learning styles. Consequently, maintaining learner interest and raising learner motivation has become the priority of every language instructor in Taiwan.

Wang (2002) noted that a lack of motivation is a common phenomenon among students in Taiwan. Taiwanese learner motivation is documented low in the secondary and tertiary levels (Chang, 2002; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). It has been evidenced by some researchers (Dörnyei, 2007; Littlewood, 2004; Wu & Wu, 2008) that the learning environment has a part to play in the learner motivation. Wu and Wu (2008) made a distinction between learning environments in terms of their impact on the learner

language competency. They pointed out that in recent years Taiwanese students had been reported to rank lower in the TOEFL and TOEIC tests than students from other Asian countries, such as Singapore, Hong Kong, and the Philippines, where English is taught in an ESL classroom and is used a lot in everyday life as opposed to the use of English as a required school subject taught in an EFL classroom. It can be concluded then that English proficiency reflected by the aforementioned test scores is an indication that the opportunity for social interaction and communication in the natural environment is a crucial factor for language acquisition in Taiwan. It is interesting to note that in discussing types of motivations, Warden and Lin (2000) added a "required" (p. 539) foreign language motivation, possessed by most Asian students. They assumed that Taiwanese students were largely motivated by language learning requirements. In other words, they study English simply because it is a required, mandatory school subject.

When it comes to Taiwanese learner motivation, teacher behaviour and attitude should not be overlooked. A few studies (Nam, 2005; Nunan, 1986) in recent decades have focused on how teachers perceive teaching and learning. One important finding of Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study was that Taiwanese English teachers believed that their behaviour, their enthusiasm and effort in teaching could have a positive impact on their students' motivation. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) also suggested that teachers make their learning tasks stimulating to arouse learner motivation despite the fact that the Taiwanese English teachers in their study "for some reason" (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 163) did not rank one of the target strategies as a significant component of motivating learners. Their study offered a good explanation as to why it was difficult to implement CLT in Taiwan. They explained that Taiwanese English teachers are still facing the challenge of "providing learners with an enjoyable and interesting learning experience" (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 169). This has been borne out by the results of their study that most participating Taiwanese English teachers in their study found it difficult to employ some motivational strategies due to certain constraints of the Taiwanese EFL context. This has been observed by many other researchers who claimed similar

difficulties they encountered when conducting CLT in EFL contexts such as China, Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, Malaysia (Carless, 2004; Gorsuch, 2000; Hu, 2002; Morris, et al., 1996).

It is necessary at this point to distinguish ESL from EFL with regard to motivation studies as the findings of most motivation studies may vary based on the effects of such a distinction. In motivation and CLT studies the term 'second language acquisition' may differ from the term 'foreign language acquisition'. To begin with, a second language (SL) is a language learnt by individuals living within his/her own community. In contrast, a foreign language (FL) is one learnt in a country where the contact with this language is largely limited to the classroom (Borg, 2006). While ESL learners are individuals who live within the target language culture (Dörnyei, 1990b), EFL learners refer to those studying the target language within their own culture and community. The second/foreign language distinction has been made in the literature (Dörnyei, 1990b; Ellis, 1994; Oller, 1978; Oxford, 1996; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996). Gardner and Masgoret (2003) observed that in the second language environment individuals learn the target language in communities where it is readily available whereas it is not the case in a foreign language environment.

The ESL/EFL distinction was also documented in Yuet's (2008) study in which the relationship between motivation and achievement among Hong Kong students was examined. He stressed that foreign language acquisition normally took place in the school context where the individual's achievement motive played a significant role in affecting learning. In contrast, for ESL learners there were alternative ways to successful learning.

The ESL/EFL distinction can be further explored by much of the research associated with motivation and CLT, largely conducted in an ESL setting (Gardner & Masgoret, 2003; MacIntyre, 2007; McGroarty, 1984; Savignon, 1972). In an attempt to explore the applicability of their findings, many studies, however, were undertaken in EFL settings (Butler, 2005; Dörnyei, 1990b; Gardner, 2007; Rao, 2002; Warden & Lin,

2000; Wu & Wu, 2008; Yuet, 2008). As many theorists remarked, (Dörnyei 1990b; Gardner, 2007; Kachru, 1994; Warden & Lin, 2000), due to differing learning contexts, needs of learners, culture, social norms, it is inappropriate to apply either the L2 acquisition theories, the results of studies undertaken in ESL settings, or even teaching methodologies successfully implemented in ESL countries to those in EFL contexts. In this vein, English learning motivation investigated in different countries may have differing effects on achievement or acquisition. Whilst researchers (Sridhar, 1994) called for fundamental changes to second language acquisition theory, Warden and Lin (2000) reminded us of the differences in SLA theories and methodologies between the East and West. They noted that as many EFL instructors were trained in Western countries, they tended to be influenced by "imported" (p. 544) ESL theories. They cautioned that as the differences in ESL and EFL contexts may lead to different relevance and implications in research results, it is perhaps unthinking to apply the results from SL directly to FL settings.

In sum, how student motivation can be maintained or raised is a crucial component in addressing the problem of ineffective teaching. Attention is therefore directed toward the issue of how or what specific strategies language teachers can adopt to be conducive to learners. Theorists and researchers (Dörnyei, 1994, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) have provided clues to this. Dörnyei (1994) suggested a list of thirty motivational strategies to include in instruction, ranging from the Language Level, to the Learner Level and to the Learning Situation Level respectively. Several motives that he pointed out, at the Learning Situation Level, which featured communicative language teaching and task-based activities, lent themselves to the models and theories mentioned in this study. Dörnyei (1994) reminded L2 teachers to base their syllabus on learner needs, to use authentic materials, to increase students' interest and involvement in peer interaction as it is often the case that many studies have reported a mismatch between learner needs and instructional practices. (Shih, Hung, Lin, & Joe, 1999; Wang, 2002).

After probing into the relationship between motivation and achievement and

examining Taiwanese students' learning motivation, I now set out to differentiate various types of motivation.

2.5.5 Types of motivation

In studies of motivation in second language acquisition, distinctions are made between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Yet, another basic type of motivation refers to the dichotomy between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Which form of motivation is more powerful in fueling successful learning? For optimal learning effects, should language learners possess both? Should classroom teachers enhance one form over the other or promote a balance between the two? To answer these questions, I now turn to the categories of varying forms of motivation.

Integrative motivation vs. instrumental motivation

Integrativeness is one of the three components in Gardner's model of integrative motivation (Gardner, 2001). It is interrelated to the other two components – attitude toward the learning situation and motivation. Integrative motivation or integrativeness is the desire to integrate oneself with the target culture. An individual with integrative motivation demonstrates interest in learning the language in order to communicate with the members of the second language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). As MacIntyre (2007) observed, "integrative motivation is a complex set of attitudes, goal-directed behaviours, and motivations" (p. 566).

By contrast, instrumental motivation is defined as the desire to learn a language for a pragmatic purpose, such as employment or obtaining a degree. To make a clear distinction between the two, an individual with an integrative motive is one who has a genuine interest in communicating with the members of the target language or community and one who has a favourable attitude toward the language learning situation. On the other hand, a person with instrumental motivation is motivated to learn the language because of some practical goals.

Although Gardner's socio-educational model had been queried by other researchers (Mori & Gobel, 2006), the importance of integrative motivation to success in language learning has attracted attention globally and has become a key theme in motivation research (Gardner, 1985, 2007; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Schumann, 1978, 1986; Zheng, 2010). For example, Gardner (2007) conducted a study on the English grades of Spanish students and concluded that integrativeness had the greatest influence on motivation. Given that the nature of L2 motivation is context-specific (Gardner, 2007), an integrative orientation, what Gardner labeled "the cultural context" (p. 14), is a component or a general characteristic of the language learner, which has an effect on the learners' ultimate success of learning a second or foreign language. This attribute, which is labeled "Openness to Cultural Identification" by Gardner (2007, p. 15) has been echoed by other theorists (Ellis, 2008; Yashima, 2002). In fact, the concept of integrativeness has received new challenges – new definitions have been given and new interpretations have emerged since the 1990s through the millennium (Dörnyei, 1990b). Based on the findings of some studies (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Irie, 2003; Warden & Lin, 2000) in EFL contexts, the concept of integrativeness originating from Gardner's theory has been reconceptualised. In some studies integrative and instrumental motivations overlap whereas in other studies integrative motivation may not even exist.

Regardless of the fact that instrumental motivation has not received much attention from Gardner (Guilloteaux, 2007), researchers have focused on instrumental motivation to be a major motivation factor, particularly in EFL contexts (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Littlewood, 1984). Ellis (2008), for example, noted that although integrative motivation is a stronger indicator of achievement or proficiency in learning, instrumental orientation seems to be more powerful in situations where learners do not show interest in the target language or community or have little interaction with the target language group. The findings of studies have reported that students with instrumental motivation were more successful language learners than those with

integrative motivation (Su & Wang, 2009), in particular at and below the intermediate proficiency level, in foreign language learning situations (Warden & Lin, 2000).

Given that some researchers stress the importance of one type of motivation over the other, attention is drawn to Gardner's study (2007) which asserts that it is the intensity of motivation rather than the type of motivation that matters the most in terms of the role that motivation plays in second or foreign language acquisition. In fact, students can be motivated to learn by both, or a mixture of both orientations (Brown 2007).

To sum up, whichever motivation is a stronger or more powerful indicator of achievement or proficiency, the nature of motivation is context specific (Dörnyei, 1994). Dörnyei's study in Hungary (1990b) rendered support to an interpretation of the distinction between the two kinds of motivation. In his study instrumental motivation played a crucial role in determining an intermediate level of English proficiency of learners in an EFL setting. However, the results of his study implied that to achieve a higher English competency, it took an integrative motivation to acquire the target language. By the same token, Yuet (2008) investigated the motivation intensity of advanced level students in Hong Kong and concluded that it took an integrative motivation for learners to go beyond intermediate level English proficiency, which would indicate that integrative motivation is meaningful for both second and foreign language intermediate and above learners whereas instrumental motivation is perhaps more relevant for less proficient foreign language learners.

In the next section, two categories of motivation — intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are distinguished.

Intrinsic motivation vs. extrinsic motivation

Motivation is distinguished between two categories — intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The intrinsic-extrinsic motivation dichotomy is often discussed in the literature (Dahmardeh, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996;

Yuet, 2008;). As Pintrich & Schunk (1996) defined,

> *"Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake. People who are intrinsically motivated work on tasks because they find them enjoyable. Task participation is its own reward and does not depend on explicit rewards or other external constraints. In contrast, extrinsic motivation is motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end. Individuals who are extrinsically motivated work on tasks because they believe that participation will result in desirable outcomes such as a reward, teacher praise or avoidance of punishment" (pp. 257-258).*

In this regard, intrinsic motivation is defined as "the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70). Individuals perform intrinsically motivated behaviour to receive internal rewards, such as enjoyment and pride whereas they perform extrinsically motivated tasks to receive extrinsic rewards, such as praise and good grades. That is, intrinsic motivation relates to a student's genuine interest in learning; however, extrinsic motivation is associated with a learner's practical reasons for learning. Whilst there is a clear-cut distinction between the two types of motivation, there remains the question of which of them is a stronger indicator of learning success.

It should be noted that the results of some studies (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei, 1990a, 2003; Gottfried, 1985; Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001) on learner motivation have highlighted the importance of intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation. It is argued that learning is best facilitated when individuals engage in learning for intrinsic reasons. It follows that learners who are more intrinsically motivated anticipate an "internally rewarding consequences such as feelings of competence and self-determination" (Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001, p. 49). These feelings are the forces that contribute to successful and effective learning. Learners with a high level of intrinsic motivation are likely to demonstrate autonomy during their learning process, leading to a higher level of achievement. In contrast, people with an extrinsic motivation engage in activities "in anticipation of a reward from outside and

beyond the self" (Rui & Liang, 2008), i.e., for pragmatic reasons, such as finding a job or passing a test. Such interpretation of the discrepancy between the two types of motivation explains why learners with an intrinsic motivation are more likely to become successful language learners.

Deci and Ryan (1985) also explained why intrinsically oriented individuals learn better. They observed how individuals with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation responded to failure differently. They found that extrinsically motivated learners tended to attribute their poor performance to a lack of intelligence or ability, a factor that was 'beyond repair'. On the other hand, intrinsically motivated people regarded their failure as a challenge to try harder. As Deci and Ryan (1985) argued, it was difficult to categorise motivation into distinct dimensions, such as integrative-instrumental motivation or intrinsic-extrinsic motivation as they tended to overlap in some areas. Therefore, it can be implied that to develop students' motivation, to improve their English academic achievement or raise their English proficiency level (Dörnyei, 1990b), it is the intrinsic motivation rather than the extrinsic that classroom teachers should value. Similarly, more importance is attached to intrinsic motivation in reference to the results of Schunk's (1984) research conducted on children's sense of efficacy, which was documented to be associated with their academic performance. He argued that learners' reading competence will be greatly facilitated when they were intrinsically motivated to read. More evidence existed in Gardner and Lambert's (1972) subjects with intrinsic motivation. Their participants with an intrinsic orientation who learned French in Canada achieved better proficiency than did their counterparts with an extrinsic orientation.

Having said that, many EFL teachers find it hard to motivate students intrinsically and eventually resort to extrinsic motivation. For example, the participants of this study were encouraged to learn English via the use of their online school resources in a self-learning language laboratory. To whet their appetite, they were rewarded extra credits for their English term grade. It can be argued, therefore, that the role of extrinsic

motivation, in this case, an EFL context, where learning is largely examination oriented, is unquestionably significant.

Given the above, extrinsic components have their part to play in language learning. Dwaik and Shehadeh (2010) investigated motivation types among EFL college students and discovered that extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation was the dominant motivation pattern among Palestinian college students. Likewise, where English is a foreign language in Taiwan, extrinsic motivation could be a facilitating factor in impacting achievement (Yang, Zhang, & Wang, 2009). However, some researchers suggested a combination of intrinsic components and extrinsic rewards to sustain learner interest and engagement in learning tasks (Hidi, 2000). As intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are not mutually exclusive (Noels, 2001) and both facilitate the learning process (Semmar, 2006), it is intrinsic motivation that is evidenced to achieve a longer-term retention on the part of the learner (Brown 2007). Under the circumstances that it is hard for any learner to involve both motivations, it is therefore the language teacher's job to enhance their students' intrinsic motivation by designing interesting tasks in the curriculum to make learning an enjoyable and rewarding experience. As such, Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) 'ten commandments' in offering valuable insights for motivating learners' intrinsic motivation may seem more valuable.

2.6 Summary

This chapter first introduces the background of the study, i.e., how English education is currently conducted in Taiwan. Current English education in Taiwan is shaped by test-orientation against a background of traditional teaching approaches of rote repetition and memorisation. After years of efforts to promote English learning in all levels, Taiwanese students are way behind their counterparts in some Asian countries. In Taiwan the English proficiency of vocational university students is lower than that of non-English majors and English majors at general colleges or universities.

This chapter then proceeded with the exploration of the developments of

Communicative Language Teaching, an innovative teaching approach in Taiwan. CLT focuses on developing learners' communicative competence through various activities, featuring two-way interaction and meaning-making. It stresses learner-centred instruction, a notional-functional syllabus to develop learners' language accuracy and fluency. Albeit the various models and theoretical frameworks for CLT all refer communicative competence in English to include core components of grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and even strategic competence. Regardless of its prevalence in ESL settings, CLT has met tremendous challenges in EFL countries. Criticisms arise from its opponents and proponents alike.

Task-based language teaching was also discussed in this chapter, as a development and an extension of CLT. It introduces the concept of learning through tasks with a communicative goal.

When it comes to second or foreign language acquisition, motivation is a controversial and debated issue in that it plays a pivotal role in determining successful learning. The term 'motivation', originating from psychology and extended to education, continues having an impact on L2 studies. Gardner's (1985) model and others proposed by his followers shed light on the dynamic and complex nature of motivation to the extent that it is connected to learner competence as well as its implications in education vis-à-vis classroom practices. In the current literature, researchers argue over which type of motivation — integrative motivation or instrumental motivation, intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation — is more influential in determining successful learning.

The end of the discussion over motivation as a vital affective factor in language learning now leads us to the next chapter, which focuses on research methods.

CHAPTER 3
METHODS

In this chapter I begin with the framework for the study. Then, I provide an introduction to the participants, the instruments, implementation of the CLT approach and data collection followed by data analysis in terms of both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Finally, a summary is provided as an overview of the whole chapter.

3.1 Research framework

Since this study aims to explore the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on English learning motivation and English proficiency, the nature of which being both quantitative and qualitative, this study employs a mixed-method approach as "a combination of quantitative designs and qualitative designs might bring out the best of both approaches while neutralizing the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 242). What quantitative data cannot address can be informed by qualitative interpretations. According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), one powerful reason for selecting qualitative research is "to stress the unique strengths of the genre for research that is exploratory and descriptive" (p. 60). By using a mixture of both approaches in a single study, one in which at least a quantitative and a qualitative method were incorporated, I was able to draw on diverse forms of data and multiple sources to provide broad perspectives on the study. With this eclectic approach, the mixed-method helped espouse the effects of the CLT pedagogy on students' learning motivation as well as their English proficiency. On the one hand, the collected data based on the results of motivation questionnaire were quantitatively analysed to interpret complex phenomena through numbers, charts and statistical analyses. On the other hand, qualitative data were deduced by means of information retrieved from structured interviews. It is argued that the quantitative and qualitative methods are

complementary to each other and the integration of the two can lead to a better understanding of the concepts being tested. Therefore, I decide to adopt both the quantitative and qualitative methods to my study, which was in nature exploratory as well as descriptive and this combination fully helped explain human behaviour from different perspectives. When the same results were yielded by the use of different methods for a single study, validity and reliability were then enhanced.

The instruments employed in this study were the Pre-CLT Questionnaire (Appendix A), the Post-CLT Questionnaire (Appendix B), the Structured Interviews (Interview questions, see Appendix C), and English Proficiency Tests. The independent variable in this study was CLT instruction. The dependant variables were learning motivation and English proficiency in listening and reading. The former was measured by motivation questionnaire surveys and the interview whereas the latter was mensurated by the TOEIC tests. The design of this study consisted of a pilot study, the formal study, a pre-CLT questionnaire and a post-CLT questionnaire, structured interviews, pre-English proficiency tests and post-English proficiency tests. As English reading and listening skills were essential and in big demand for nursing professionals in Taiwan (Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive, 1999; Lee, 1998; Lin & Li, 2007), this study focused on these two skills as the basis for analysis. The TOEIC listening and reading tests were therefore administered to the target sample twice to assess potential progress in their English proficiency.

To clarify the inextricable interrelatedness between the aforementioned variables, I proposed a model that examined the relationships among CLT instruction, students' learning motivation and their English proficiency. The conceptual framework that guides this study is displayed graphically in Figure 3.1.

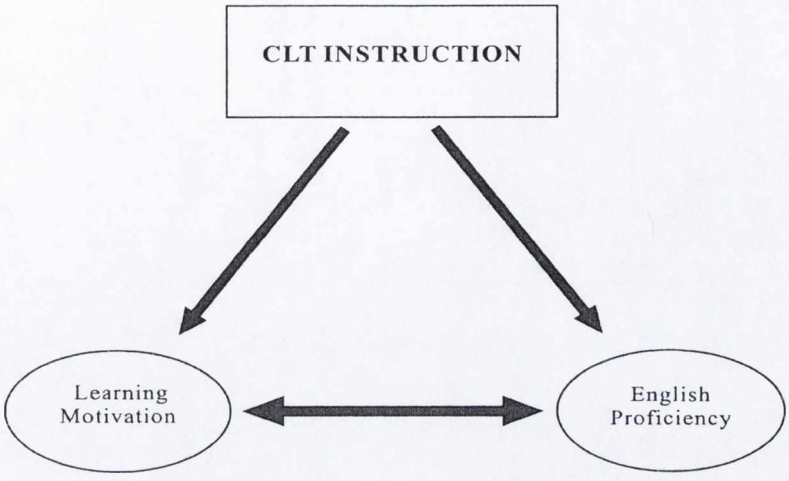

Figure 3.1 Framework of the study

First and foremost is the relationship between motivation and English proficiency. A number of studies and experiments (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dwaik & Shehadeh, 2010; Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1985; Lucas, Pulido, Miraflores, Ignacio, Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, Tacay & Lao, 2010;) sought to identify motivation as a key to successful learning. It is noteworthy that motivation is multifaceted and dynamic. Any strand of motivation, integrative or instrumental motivation, intrinsic or extrinsic motivation is likely to lead to successful learning. The type of learner orientation is reflected by learner needs, which might be fulfilled under differing contexts. In terms of the extracted factors from the motivation questionnaire specifically designed for Taiwanese students, the participants' quantitative analyses in part determined the effect of motivation on their English proficiency. It was argued that the more motivated a learner was, the higher English proficiency he or she may achieve and vice versa.

The premise of this framework is that once the relationship between learning motivation and English proficiency is identified, CLT as an intervention may or may not have an effect on each variable. In other words, an effective CLT curriculum may lead to students' higher learning motivation levels and an enhancement in their English proficiency and vice versa.

Following the research framework, the research timeline is provided, followed by the background information of the participants, the sampling technique and the instruments employed in the next three sections.

3.2 Research timeline

The overall research study began in October 2008 and continued through August 2011. There have been four major phases to this research study. The first phase involved planning the research study in relation to reviewing the literature and developing the research title and research questions. Between October 2008 and February 2009 I reviewed the research literature of previously conducted studies to obtain some ideas about the potential topic area for my study. During this period of time I decided to conduct a mixed research paradigm. Then I identified the research problems within the topic area I had selected and also formulated the specific research questions to be investigated. A statement of my intent, i.e., the purpose of my study was also generated.

Phase 2 lasted six months, beginning March 2009 till August 2009. This was the stage in preparation for the pilot study. Since I aimed to investigate the subjects' learning motivation, I sought instruments for the mixed sampling design. Three major methods of data collection – questionnaires, tests, interviews – were considered. First and foremost was the questionnaire survey. Rather than constructing a questionnaire myself, I came upon a well-developed motivation questionnaire from a distinguished scholar in Taiwan. I sought his permission to grant my request to use it in my study. I conducted the pilot study in mid June 2009. Next, I searched for and considered using the TOEIC, a developed standardised test for measuring my subjects' English proficiency in listening and reading. Interview questions were also designed and edited during this time.

Phase 3 was the key stage in my study as it was the implementation stage in CLT instruction, motivation surveys and interviews. It began in September 2009 and continued through June 2010. During this period of time CLT instruction took place

during school terms between September 2009 and February 2010 and resumed from March through June 2010. For both the motivation surveys and English proficiency tests, the pre-tests and post-tests were conducted in September 2009 and June 2010 respectively. Meanwhile, individual interview sessions took place during the school terms.

In July 2010 I began the data analysing process in Phase 4. Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data took place simultaneously. The SPSS software was employed to analyse participants' English test scores and motivation survey results. The outcomes of interviews were established through a systematic procedure of coding, deducting, corroborating and validating. Phase 4 also involved the process of writing the research study, which extended to August 2011.

Figure 3.2 illustrates the instrument development stages with key dates of all interventions for the present study. It provides a visual model of the research design showing the sequence of the qualitative and quantitative stages of the study and a timeline of the research phases.

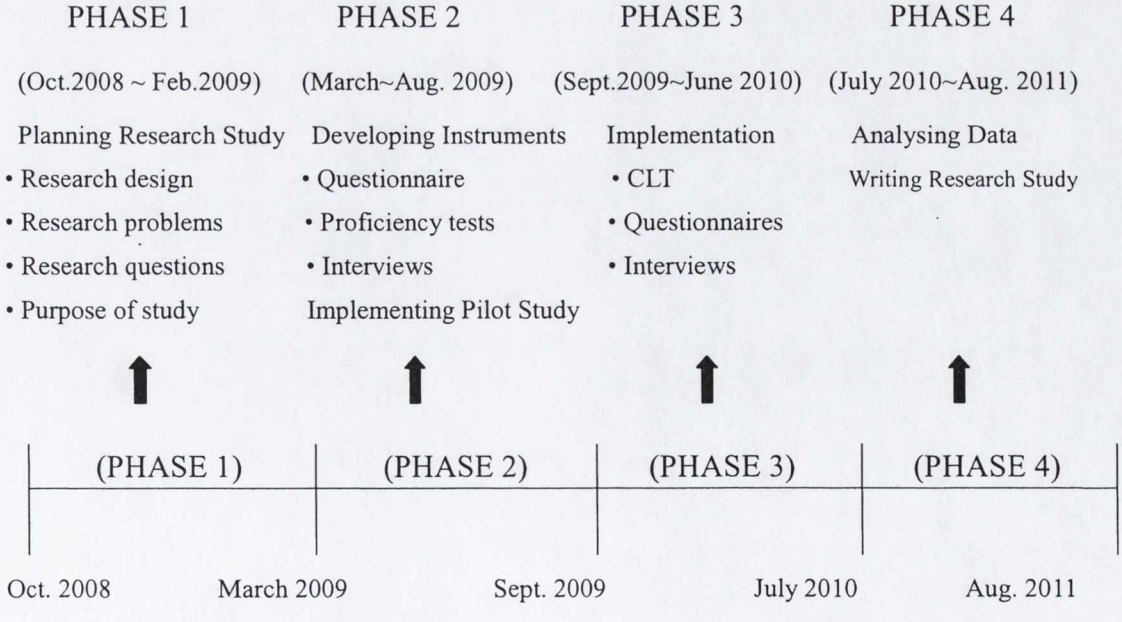

Figure 3.2 Timeline of the study

3.3 Participants

The subjects for this study were 163 students from a nursing university in Taipei. Prior to the implementation of this study, I obtained informed consent from the authority of the University (Appendix D). Three classes totalling 123 students were in nursing and only one class of 40 was comprised of students from the Department of Infant and Child Care and Exercise and Health Science. During the implementation of the study, all subjects were enrolled in English as a required course, with two hours of English reading and another two hours of English Oral-Aural Practice in the language laboratory each week. These students therefore served as the subjects for this study based on convenience sampling. They were placed at lower-proficiency level classes based on the results of their School English Placement test scores. Another essential consideration to opt for them was that their English programmes lasted one academic year rather than one semester, which provided longer instruction and implementation time for the study.

As for the interviews, a total of 27 students were selected from the sample population based on the composite motivation mean score of their pre-CLT questionnaire and their English proficiency test scores. Three interviewees were selected from a different combination group of each Motivation Level and English proficiency Level. The English proficiency test score was a composite score of participants' pre-CLT and post-CLT test scores. The ranges for their motivation level and English proficiency scores are listed below:

Table 3.1 Range of interviewees' motivation levels and English proficiency

	Mean of Motivation	English Proficiency Score (TOEIC)
Level I	3.69~4.01	457~630
Level II	3.35~3.68	286~456
Level III	3.01~3.34	115~285

For the sake of confidentiality, pseudonyms were used for the interviewees.

3.4 Instruments

One of the reasons to use multiple data sources was to avoid being subjective and

biased, and to triangulate the data. Triangulation "enhances the accuracy of a study" (Creswell, 2005, p. 252) and it refers to "cross-checking specific data items of a factual nature" (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 241). The three major instruments used in this study were the student questionnaire survey, structured interviews, and English proficiency tests. They will be sketched separately in the sections that ensue.

3.4.1 Questionnaire

The learning motivation survey by Chang (2002) provided the broad theoretical framework for this study. His questionnaire was a motivation questionnaire, which investigated Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation, and this served as the basis for the questionnaire used in the pilot study and the pre-CLT motivation questionnaire for the formal study. Prior to using this questionnaire, permission was granted and a consent form (Appendix E) was received. Given that the original version of Chang's motivation scale was a Taiwan-based questionnaire in Chinese, with the same EFL teaching and learning background, the learning motivation section of the original items were retained and used as the instrument for the study. To provide an overview of the questions, I translated the Chinese version of the motivation scale (Appendix A and B) into English and had a senior Taiwan English instructor examine the two versions to avoid a gap in meaning. The 64-item questionnaire was in a five-point Likert scale format, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Section one dealt with the participants' personal background information. Items in section two related to their motivational orientations (#10~64). As the respondents were the researcher's own students, the response rate was 100%.

Using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Chang (2002) extracted nine factors from the Motivational orientation subscale accounting for 54.1% of the total variance. As shown below in Table 3.2, Factor 1 of motivational orientations concerned students' competence, interest, efficacy, sense of achievement, and emotions about learning English. Therefore, this factor can be termed 'Intrinsic Motivation'. Factor 1 loaded

heavily on items numbered 13, 14, 20, 23, 33, 35, 36, and 37. The eight items clustering together showed that students who possessed intrinsic motivation would spend time studying English. Six items numbered 21, 24 27, 32, 42, and 46 obtained high loadings on Factor 2, labelled 'Interest in Foreign Languages, Cultures, and People'. They illustrated that learners who showed interests in English or the target culture and people were motivated to study English. Factor 3 which was labelled 'Implied Value with English' consisted of six items. The loadings fell heavily on items numbered 10, 11, 44, 47, 48, and 54. They showed that those who put a positive sense of value on English were motivated to learn English. Factor 4 was composed of 5 items. They were related to the requirement of studying English on the part of the students. Their high loadings fell on items numbered 17, 39, 43, 45, and 56. Factor 5 consisted of three items, which involved a desire to integrate into the target community and was thus labelled 'Desire to Integrate into the Target Community'. Their high loadings were on items numbered 31, 34, and 40. This factor revealed that students having a desire to integrate into the target community were motivated to learn English. Factor 6 comprised five items, which were associated with learners' needs for English in academics, technology, computers and the Internet. Termed 'Technology and Knowledge', this factor explicated that students who had English needs in academics, technology, computers and the Internet were motivated to learn English. Their high loadings were on items numbered 15, 16, 25, 55, and 56. Factor 7, coined 'Need for Good Performance in English Class', contained four items. They indicated that students studied English because they needed to obtain good grades in class. They were high on items numbered 18, 26, 29, and 49. Factor 8, 'Need for Studying Abroad', contained two items. This factor showed that students studied English in order to pass proficiency tests so they could study abroad. They fell heavily on items numbered 30 and 41. Finally, Factor 9 was categorised as 'Future Career'. It was about students' career needs to study English. This factor was predominant in three items, which loaded heavily on items numbered 12, 19, and 22. Table 3.2 shows the categorisation of questionnaire items based on Chang's nine motivation factors and his

factor loadings. As for the post-CLT questionnaire, 163 questionnaires were distributed and the response rate was 100%. The data were then statistically analysed by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 18.0 for Windows.

Table 3.2 Categorisation of questionnaire items based on motivation orientations

Factor 1: Intrinsic Motivation	Loading
13. A sense of accomplishment in learning English urges me to learn more.	.56
14. Learning English is a burden for me.	.75
20. I think learning English is an interesting challenge.	.47
23. I don't like learning English because I had an unhappy learning experience.	.76
33. I have given up learning English because I do not have confidence in it.	.64
35. I really like studying English.	.63
36. I often feel uncomfortable speaking English.	.68
37. I am positive that I can learn English well.	.61
Factor 2: Interest in Foreign Languages, Cultures, and People	**Loading**
21. I learn English because it helps me participate in ethnic activities more comfortably.	.70
24. I want to learn English because it helps me engage in leisure activities.	.35
27. I want to learn English because it helps me communicate with people from different cultures.	.65
32. I learn English to make friends with foreigners.	.64
42. Learning English gives me a better understanding of the art and culture of English-speaking countries so I could appreciate them more.	.55
Factor 3: Implied Value with English	**Loading**
10. I learn English to live a better life.	.50
11. It will be a great loss if I don't study English.	.61
44. I think English sounds beautiful.	.55
47. I learn English because it makes me an influential person in my group.	.57
48. I study hard while taking English in school because I am interested in trying out new things.	.43
54. Learning English makes me a modern citizen.	.50
Factor 4: Requirement	**Loading**
17. I learn English because I need to take tests.	.51
39. I don't think there is a need for me to learn much English.	.48
43. I learn English because it is a required subject.	.62
45. I learn English to meet others' anticipation and requests.	.65
56. I want to learn English because my classmates and friends are learning English	.51

Factor 5: Desire to Integrate into the Target Community	Loading
31. I want others to think that I am an English native speaker.	.78
34. I want to learn English because I'd like to think and behave like Americans and British people.	.80
40. I learn English because I want to immigrate to a foreign country.	.51
Factor 6: Technology and Knowledge	**Loading**
15. I learn English to become a more knowledgeable person.	.41
16. I learn English to keep myself up-to-date in academics and technology.	.70
25. I want to learn English to acquire knowledge in world news.	.44
55. I want to learn English because it is needed for computers and the Internet use.	.67
56. I want to learn English because I use English in my daily life.	.50
Factor 7: Need for Good Performance in English Class	**Loading**
18. I study hard in English class because I want high grades.	.74
26. It is important that I excel in English in my English class.	.52
29. When I have good performance in English exams, I will study harder.	.63
49. I study hard in my English course because I want to receive high grades.	.62
Factor 8: Need for Studying Abroad	**Loading**
30. I want to learn English because it helps me study abroad.	.63
41. I learn English because I need to pass the TOEFL or IELTS.	.69
Factor 9: Need for Future Career	**Loading**
12. I learn English because a good English competency is recognized in Taiwan.	.71
19. I learn English because the U.S. and the U.K. are powerful countries in the world.	.36
22. I want to learn English because it is helpful in finding a better job.	.63

Five open-ended questions were added to the post-CLT questionnaire, which were intended to further elicit participants' perceptions of the CLT approach. The questions involved an enquiry into the respondents' perceptions toward CLT, which covered a broader scope. Two questions (#65, #66) asked them to indicate their preference toward each type of CLT activity; one question (#67) concerned their beliefs in the possibility of any enhancement in their English proficiency after CLT instruction; one question (#68) concerned whether they preferred CLT or the traditional teaching method. Finally, the last question (#69) asked them to rate their own degree of involvement in CLT activities and to state the factors that deterred their full engagement in the CLT

classroom. These questions were reviewed and revised by two senior TESOL instructors in advance to ensure content validity. They were analysed qualitatively to reveal a clearer picture of the relationship between the variables in this study.

This paragraph discusses the issue of reliability and validity. Reliability and validity are essential to the effectiveness of any data-gathering procedure. Reliability is defined as "the degree of consistency that the instrument or procedure demonstrates" (Best & Kahn, 1989, p. 160). Reliability in terms of the questionnaire survey "is a synonym for dependability, consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 146). If the measure is stable, the results illustrate a high degree of stability or framed reliability, i.e., the results can be consistently replicated and carried out on a similar group of subjects over time in a similar context. In this regard, Cronbach alpha was used to examine the internal consistency reliability of the items in the motivation orientation section in the motivation questionnaires, which were fairly appreciable with .87 for Section two. Hence the inferences made from the motivation questionnaire can be considered to be fairly reliable.

Apart from reliability, validity is another key factor in determining the effectiveness of research. It is the "quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure" (Best & Kahn, 1989, p. 160). In other words, if a study is valid, it measures what it purports to measure. The questionnaires of this study can be said to have a high degree of validity in that the items sampled a significant aspect of the motivational orientations of Taiwanese vocational university students. On the one hand, according to the designer of the original motivation questionnaire, the questionnaire items were in part adapted from a number of published resources. On the other hand, some questionnaire items stemmed from 200 essays that students wrote down about their EFL learning experiences. In the essay, students described their experiences in terms of the following aspects: 1) reasons for learning English; 2) goals of learning; 3) difficulties and joys of learning; 4) English

use fields; and 5) general reflections about learning English. Consequently, the above evidences provided estimates of content validity.

3.4.2 Interview

The interview as a qualitative approach is one of the research methods used in this study (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). In an interview, the interviewee gives information orally face to face instead of writing his or her responses. Cohen et al. (2007) conceptualised the meaning of the interview.

> *"It is an unusual method in that in involves the gathering of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. In this sense it differs from the questionnaire where the respondent is required to record in some way her responses to set questions." (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 351)*

Best and Kahn (1989) theorised that the interview was superior to other data-gathering devices in that people tended to talk more than to write. Once the interviewer gains rapport with the interviewee and establishes a friendly relationship with him/her, more information tends to be elicited from the interview than from the questionnaire. The strength of the interview lies in its complementary role and nature in providing more in-depth data and evidence to the study involved. Another advantage of the interview is that data collection via the questionnaire can be further reinforced in face-to-face interviews. In the case of incomplete or ambiguous responses from the questionnaire items, the interview can serve as a complement to the limited scope of the questionnaire.

As motivation is a complex, dynamic, context-dependent, thought- and behaviour-oriented issue (MacIntyre, Noels, & Moore, 2010), the interview is a well suited method to examine the relationship between motivation and English proficiency of language learners. For the purpose of the present study, the interview sought to elicit the participants' motivational orientations, their perceptions of English learning, their points of view toward the teaching method, teaching activities, instructional process, and course content. It provided me with an opportunity to gain more perspectives into

questionnaire items and to provide the interviewees a chance to share their views and experience in English learning and use.

The interview for this study was structured. A structured interview "is one in which the content and procedures are organised in advance" and one where "the sequence and wording of the questions are determined by means of a schedule and the interviewer is left little freedom to make modifications" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 355). Therefore, I conducted interviews in a systematic and consistent order, with the same format and wording and even identical types of questions for each interviewee, allowing some room for adaptation. According to Phillips and Stawarski (2008), the key steps to a successful interview involved the steps below:

- Develop the questions to be asked
- Test the interview
- Prepare the interviewers
- Provide clear instructions to the participants
- Schedule the interviews

(Phillips & Stawarski, 2008, p. 24-25)

Following the above principles, first I created questions prior to the interview sessions. To ensure that the interview questions reflected the target research questions, I wrote them down in advance. Most questions were either in the form of yes/no questions or open-ended items. I then prepared a written outline and a checklist that served as a plan for the interview. For the sake of a systematic and consistent analysis, interview questions were grouped under five headings. Once the interview questions were prepared, I scheduled and conducted the interviews.

It should be noted that for the purpose of consistency and convenience, a coding scheme was employed vis-à-vis the interview questions and the interviewees. The interview questions were numbered one through eleven and the identities of interviewees were coded A through D, followed by their numeric identities. Where their quotations were concerned, confidentiality, anonymity and non-identifiability were

considered in order to abide by ethical rules. Based on the detailed analyses of transcribed data, informants' responses under each corresponding theme or grouped interview questions were delineated.

Next, I will discuss the reliability and validity for the interview process. An essential component to describe an effective instrument is reliability, or the consistency of response in the interview. A reliable way to evaluate reliability in an interview is to restate interview questions or repeat the interview at a later time (Best & Kahn, 1989). If consistency of response is achieved, the interview can be claimed to be reliable. The interview, according to Best and Kahn (1989), is most effective with human motivation. Nonetheless, they cautioned against bias on the part of the interviewer, which might affect the outcome of the investigation.

As explicated earlier in this section, the interview questions developed for the purpose of this study were well sequenced in a consistent order. As each selected CLT activity was reinforced and carried out intermittently during different phases of this study, the same types of questions were recycled and repeatedly asked at different time slots. Only consistent responses derived from the interview were taken into account as the basis for the analysis of this study. In so doing, the interview process can be claimed to possess a high degree of reliability.

In interviews, face validity and content validity are often discussed. Face validity examines what it is designed to be tested 'at face value'. If a study contains face validity, "the questions asked look as if they are measuring what they claim to measure" (Cohen, 2007, p. 150). The most practical way of achieving greater validity, according to Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007) was to minimise the amount of bias as much as possible. Bias may stem from the interviewer, respondents, and the content of the interview questions. Recording interviewees' responses is one way to provide an important indication of face validity.

The content validity of a measuring instrument is "the extent to which it provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions guiding the study" (Cooper &

Schindler, 2006, p. 318). In this study the interview questions were carefully developed, reviewed and evaluated by TESOL experts before being administered. They were modified and selected accordingly prior to administration. Additionally, I invited two senior English teachers to review and check for any discrepancies between the Chinese and English verbatim after the translation procedure. A few misleading expressions were then modified based upon the reviewers' feedback. Consequently, the interviews for this study can be said to possess a high degree of face validity and content validity.

Taken the above, the interview for this study can be said to have a high degree of reliability, face validity, and content validity. The results of the analyses of the interviews will be displayed in Chapter four.

3.4.3 English proficiency test

Apart from the questionnaires and the interviews, English proficiency tests were employed as data-gathering instruments for this study. The TOEIC was selected as an instrument to measure the participants' English proficiency based on the following reasons. First and foremost, the TOEIC is a globally accepted standardised test that is recognised as a valid assessment used widely and extensively by institutions and organisations around the globe. Secondly, since the setting for the present study was targeted at technological and vocational university students, there should be a bigger pressing demand for the participating students to enhance their English proficiency for the workplace, and hence the TOEIC test was selected. Thirdly, the TOEIC test is one of the standardised tests set as a school graduation requirement for all students including the subjects of this research, as well as the School English Placement Test, which placed all incoming students to different English proficiency levels. Fourthly, the participants had an easy access to a wide range of on-line practice tests provided by their school, which facilitated language learning. Given the above, the instrumentation process was screened and narrowed down to the TOEIC test and aimed specifically at the TOEIC listening and reading proficiency tests due to the reasons given below. On the one hand,

English reading and listening were two basic receptive skills deemed essential for nursing professionals. On the other hand, given that English reading and listening were two of the participants' required core courses, this selection supported the underlying construct of this study in measuring the effects of the CLT approach on the participants' English reading and listening proficiency, as presented earlier in this chapter.

The sources for the TOEIC reading and listening tests were simulated practice tests developed by Educational Testing Services, commonly known as ETS, an American organisation which has been positioning educational assessment worldwide for over six decades. The TOEIC listening comprehension test contained 100 questions in four sections and the TOEIC reading comprehension test included 100 questions in three sections. The test-taking time for the listening test was 45 minutes and it was one hour and 15 minutes for the reading test. The total score for the listening and speaking tests was 990. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss the reliability and validity of the tests.

A reliable test features stability and comparable scores upon repeated testing. There are a number of types of reliability and internal consistency that are used extensively as a measure of significant reliability for the testing instrument. As discussed in the previous paragraph, since the adopted TOEIC tests were designed by a panel of experts in education, a high degree of reliability and validity was unequivocal. It can be said that the TOEIC tests allow fair, reliable and valid inferences to be made from the test scores.

When it came to the validity of a test, content validity was sought after. Content validity "is achieved by ensuring that the content of the test fairly samples the class or fields of the situations or subject matter in question" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 163~164). Content validity is particularly important for achievement tests.

Having said that, to ensure appropriacy and minimise the level of any form of threat to the reliability and validity of the TOEIC tests including the teacher, the students, the test items, the setting and other specific contextual factors that might exert

a significant influence on the results of the tests, I manipulated the variables to simulate a genuine TOEIC test so as to render the assessment as a reliable and valid instrument. A good example of this is 'stability over time' as the same TOEIC test was administered twice, i.e., the scores of the pre-test were correlated with those of the post-test to achieve good test-retest reliability.

3.5 Implementation of CLT

In this section of the study, the CLT curriculum is introduced in depth in terms of its programme and syllabus design, the selection of teaching materials and activities, and its instructional process.

3.5.1 Syllabus Design

The syllabus for this study is a mixed one, one which integrates English listening, reading, and oral communication and one that claims teaching grammar through the integration of texts rather than isolated components (Folse, 2010; Millard, 2000). Various skills that arise together in real life such as speaking, reading and listening are linked in this course as is outlined in research (Richards, 2006) as one of the overarching principles of CLT. Given that this study seeks to obtain its desired outcome from the application of the communicative language teaching approach in a university English reading and listening course, knowledge and skills are central to the syllabus design. As communicative skills in English are important for success in English reading (McGroarty, 1984), the reading syllabus was designed to develop students' reading strategies, vocabulary learning, and autonomous learning (Hsu, 2007). Through CLT activities, students acquired communicative competence by building their linguistic competence in pair work and interactions (Pica, Kang, & Sauro, 2006).

While discussing the relationships between task types and interactional patterns, Nunan (1991) stressed the importance of selecting a mix of tasks to reflect the pedagogic goals of the curriculum. Seeking balance and multiplicity between diverse

task types leads the syllabus of the present study to an explicit effort in teaching grammatical competence and general linguistic competence, such as listening and speaking skills. Additionally, reflecting on innovative ideas as to what kind of content was of greatest interests to my students, I sought to use content as a key component of my classroom activities (Burston & Kyprianou, 2009). Such a text-based syllabus was designed and developed through needs analysis in different settings. The syllabus also identified components such as vocabulary, topics and functions. The competency-based language teaching approach undertaken in this study with vocational education background students was in congruence with the guidelines and principles of recent educational policies mandated by the Taiwan MOE.

The lesson plan for this study confirmed the communicative principles advocated in the CLT literature (Brown, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Although one course was identified as 'English Reading', I developed my own methods and adapted the methodology to suit the students' backgrounds, interests, needs and their personal experience. Although many CLT teachers prioritised listening and speaking over reading and writing, I applied the CLT approach to all four skills in hopes of enhancing learners' integrative macro and micro skills.

Appendices G and H showed two distinctive CLT-based syllabi for a listening/speaking course and a reading course respectively.

3.5.2 Teaching materials

The instructional materials used in this study were multidimensional in nature. As we recall in Chapter Two of this study, CLT activities feature learner-centred negotiation and meaningful interaction. Consequently, the instructional materials were aimed at increasing the communicative opportunities students had during every class session. Further priority was therefore given to topics of interests that filled the needs of and suited the target participants' cultural, social and educational context. The application of pair work or group work took place extensively in the classroom. Given the above

considerations, the instructional reading and listening materials stemmed from various sources, texts and discourse, all with the central tenet of communication in mind. Last but not least, adaptation of the texts overtly arose throughout the materials.

In relation to the selection of teaching materials, several factors were taken into account. First of all, to produce genuine communication in language learning, it was crucial that that learning materials include authentic tasks. Secondly, the themes and content in the materials were intended to meet the needs, interests, backgrounds, and language level of the learners' competence. To serve these purposes, I used the *Focus on Grammar series* of Schoenberg (2000), a high-rated CLT/FFI (form-focused instruction) as one of the textbooks (Millard, 2000). With this text, it was evidenced that grammar could be taught communicatively, through pair work and group work. Many communicative activities in the selected units provided a variety of communicative contexts for learners to internalise language. An integrated skills approach was utilised so that form could be picked up in unthreatening interactive activities.

As for the reading and listening texts, there was a broad range of articles from various sources, whose topics were carefully selected from lifelike situations such as newspapers, magazines, and the Internet where globally and culturally diverse perspectives were accessible. As the focus of learning was the learners' ability to communicate rather than grammar rules, fluency was valued more than accuracy. Error correction was minimised to the extent that learners could express their ideas freely.

3.5.3 Teaching activities

The types of activities for this study may vary to a certain degree, but all aim to engage learners in group work or pair work to initiate oral communication. The rationale behind the design of the teaching activities is that the activities provide learners opportunities for authentic, meaningful communicative interaction. The curriculum, therefore, is based on learners' needs and interests to include a wide range of activities, such as information gap, survey, problem-solving, discussion, role-plays,

improvisation, simulation, debating, and project work. A cycle of role-plays, information gap, problem-solving activities, and games reinforced one another throughout the entire programme. CLT makes it a focal point to inject elements of entertainment, such as various language games, with a view to making learning a light-hearted and pleasant experience.

Next, I will give a brief introduction to each of the four key CLT activities implemented in the instructional programme for this study. A representative communicative activity for each CLT activity is described in detail in Appendix I.

Role-play

Role-play as a typical communicative activity emphasises collaboration among peers in real-life situations (Sung, 2010). In a role-play activity, each student is assigned a role and he or she improvises a scene based on the given information. The mission of a language teacher, in turn, is to set the scene and plot of the conversation or story, explain the task to his or her students and thereby facilitate the acting out of the students' roles.

Cohen et al. (2007) outlined a list of strengths of role-plays in educational settings. Role-plays not only increase learner motivation and heighten self-esteem, but also lower anxiety. They can also promote cultural understanding for ESL learners (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Savignon (1997) remarked that "role-playing allows learners to explore situations that would otherwise never come up in the classroom" (p. 187). Her comments strengthen the notion that role-playing breaks the limitations of the classroom as an artificial setting for learning by bringing real-life situations into the classroom. Dubbed a "CLT star" (Al-Arishi, 1994, p. 338), its social interactive values were confirmed by its proponents (Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1997). Dahmardeh (2009) commented on role-play in connection with one of the principles of CLT. "Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts" (p. 67). In this sense, role-playing offers students different

social contexts in which they adjust their use of the target language (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

As was mentioned in Chapter 2, any strand of CLT, once effectively employed, could reduce the problems inherent in a traditionally approached classroom. Role-play can be ready-made or learners can write their own. In applying role-plays to the classroom, teachers can adapt existing ones to meet learners' needs or settings, making the classroom a relaxing, and most of all, a non-threatening environment.

Information Gap Activity

The notion of information gap activities is based on the assumption that in real life people communicate in order to get information they do not possess (Richards, 2006). The information gap tasks involve a transfer of given information from one person to another. To reach a certain goal, the participants in an information gap task that features only one outcome or answer engage in a verbal exchange of information by negotiating meaning through interaction (Pica, 2005). They each have some information not shared by one another and thus a 'gap' occurs and it cannot be bridged unless the participants in the group task pool their information (Neu & Reeser, 1997).

In an information gap task the teacher and learner have distinctive separate roles. The teacher simply explains the activity and reviews the vocabulary needed for the activity. Students are then on their own to complete the task. Each participant plays an important role and the task cannot be accomplished without everyone's participation. Many information gap activities are highly motivational (Dahmardeh, 2009) because of the nature of various tasks. Activities that require the solving of a problem are especially effective. Teachers can determine whether an activity is of an acceptable level of difficulty for their students. If students are sufficiently prepared for the activity, the level of language accuracy will be acceptable.

Information gap tasks can also be used to reinforce vocabulary and a variety of grammatical structures. As Pica, Kang and Sauro (2006) noted, information gap tasks

play multiple roles in SLA. They can be designed to teach specific linguistic forms that are especially challenging for learners. They allow students to use linguistic forms and functions in a communicative way. These activities bring the language to life for students. In this respect, grammar is no longer difficult for them to apply to speaking.

Problem-solving Activity

Problem-solving is well understood through Brown's (2007) description: "Problem solving is a kind of learning that requires the internal events usually referred to as 'thinking'. Previously acquired concepts and principles are combined in a conscious focus on an unsolved or ambiguous set of events" (p. 100). In problem-solving activities, students are given a problem and they are expected to come up with their own solutions. When they work on these types of tasks in dyads or groups, they brainstorm and contribute their ideas as they seek to resolve the problem at hand. Problem-solving activities can be very effective in building students' capacity for learning because students are more likely to interact with each other in tasks that are open where there are no correct answers. Such two-way closed tasks yield more negotiation than do open tasks and so make very effective speaking activities (Folse, 2003).

In the ensuing section, 'games' as a popular CLT activity will be extensively discussed.

Game

The role of games in a communicative classroom is not new to language teachers. Despite the prevalent positive attitudes towards games among language teachers, many tend to consider games as 'time fillers' (Wang, 2010). The commonly held view by many EFL teachers is that games are not serious learning. To address this misconception, Hadfield's (1990) definition of game served the purpose: "A game is an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun" (p. 5). A great variety of elements play into the birth of games: competition, relaxation, learning, fun. Tuan and Doan, (2010) outlined the

advantages of using games in language teaching and learning. These have implications for the pedagogical values of games especially in EFL classrooms. The advantages are summarised below.

To begin with, games are highly motivating especially to shy learners. The competitive aspects of games spur learners' motivation to employ meaningful language in real contexts. It is the competitive element that stimulates passive, low-proficiency learners to negotiate meaning in pairs or groups to achieve the goal of beating the other team. Secondly, games that foster collaboration and team spirit provide a venue for learners to promote interaction through pair work and group work. Naturally more interaction is foreseen in games than in a traditionally approached classroom. Thirdly, games are a more effective way in facilitating learning than other types of activities as they can lower anxiety and facilitate the acquisition process. The relaxing environment that games bring into the classroom not only lowers learners' anxiety, stress, and fright, it also encourages and motivates shy learners to master language unconsciously, without realising they are learning. When students are free from worry and stress, they tend to acquire fluency or even accuracy in a natural way. Additionally, apart from having fun, students do not worry about making mistakes in games. The skills and knowledge that are internalised naturally by learners in games apply to listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar and hence, learners' achievement.

Language games can be categorised into two types (Hadfield, 1999), linguistic games and communicative games or many more types based on their principles, rules or nature. Be they guessing games, structure games, or vocabulary games, teachers should carefully select appropriate ones that meet their students' needs, interest, and English proficiency levels.

3.5.4 Instructional process

The next issue to consider would undoubtedly be the question 'How does CLT operate in this study?' Throughout the instructional practices, each individual CLT

activity that lasted no more than 50 minutes was carried out in a 2-hour reading and listening/speaking course each week. Pair work was used frequently in information gap and problem-solving activities whereas group work was applied more to role-plays and class work to games. Be it pair work, group work or class work, all featured interaction and negotiation of meaning.

Examples of an instructional process for a reading and listening/speaking session featuring differing types of CLT activities are given in the next three paragraphs.

Reading text can generate a lot of discussion in class. By following reading strategies, students have the opportunities to practise their reading and speaking skills. Note that the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing do not occur in isolation. They are integrated in real life and in the language classroom as well. An effective teaching method to enhance reading comprehension and autonomous learning is one where collaborative learning is the core premise. An exemplar of this would be the jigsaw reading activity which involves learners in speaking, reading and summarising skills. It can be very effective by using authentic texts such as newspaper articles.

An information-gap activity was used a number of times throughout the implementation of CLT activities in this study. It was particularly effective in eliciting grammar rules and corrective usage. In a reading unit entitled 'the Demise of a Megastar – Michael Jackson', learners practised the simple past tense in an information-gap activity. Discussion on Michael Jackson's weird behaviour was further directed by the instructor as the stimulus of a post-reading activity. The lesson could also be streamed towards a cultural issue in small group discussion.

In this study role-playing took the central stage in a listening/speaking class in the language laboratory. In one role-play session, for example, learners simulated a conversation between a nurse and a patient. Autonomous learning was the focus. Learners selected their own roles, wrote their own stories, which were linked to their personal experience. Within this activity, fluency rather than accuracy was stressed and

corrective feedback was lessened to the minimum. To enhance their motivation, learners were encouraged to walk out of the classroom and videotape their lifelike conversation on campus. The interaction was crucial and highly motivating to them.

3.6 Data collection

The gathering of data at multiple levels provides ways to examine different facets of human behaviour. Data collection in this study involved motivation questionnaires, the interview, English proficiency tests, and five extra open-ended questions at the end of the post-CLT questionnaire for the target sample. Prior to discussions over the collected data, I now turn to the issue of ethics.

3.6.1 Ethics

At the initial stage of the study, all prospective participants including those students for the pilot study, the formal study, and the interviewees were provided written sheets describing the purpose of the study, descriptions of the procedures of data collection, and their rights as participants. They were told that the nature of the study was voluntary. In other words, they had the right to be excused from the study or to withdraw from it at any stage of the study. On this written document, they were informed of their responsibilities and rights as a participant of the study. They were told that their identities would be kept confidential and anonymity was guaranteed during all stages of the study. They were also assured that their English proficiency test scores would not be disclosed or revealed. The sheet was then signed by each individual student as the consent form (Appendix F) for their agreement to the terms and conditions of this study.

The arrangement of the interview as to the content and schedule were explained to the participants in advance. All interviews were conducted in the interviewees' free time slots to avoid the interference with their formal lessons. Permission for audio recordings was also sought from them and they were guaranteed that a pseudonym would be used

when it came to direct quotes in the final report.

In short, it is imperative that the subjects of the study understand the nature of the study. Consequently, I informed all subjects of the purpose and the procedure at the initial stage of the study.

This research also received approval from the School of Education Ethics Committee (for the Ethics approval letter see Appendix E) as it is required all research involving human subjects to address ethical issues.

3.6.2 Questionnaire

A major data collection instrument used in this study is a pre-CLT scale of 64 items and a 69-item post-CLT questionnaire. The pre-CLT scale was based on the motivation questionnaire of a Taiwanese researcher who implemented his study to university students in southern Taiwan. The scale provided an independent assessment of nine constructs, assessing different aspects of motivation and gained insights into the present study. This motivation questionnaire was pilot-tested beforehand and formally administered twice.

Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the implementation of the study. According to Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007), "a pilot has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire" (p. 341). In short, the purpose of a pilot study is to detect any unforeseen practical problems in using the instrument, for example, to ascertain whether the questionnaire items are comprehensible, to gain feedback on their validity and the operationalisation of the constructs.

The participants in the pilot study were a class of 54 freshmen. Their ages ranged from 18 to 26 years old. They were enrolled in the English courses when the pilot study was undertaken. Of the 54 participants only two were male. Seventy-five percent of

participants had learnt English for seven to ten years in Taiwan. More than two thirds of them graduated from senior vocational high schools rather than from general high schools throughout Taiwan. To ensure proper wording and full comprehension, the Chinese version of the questionnaire was test-taken, reviewed and modified for clarification by two senior non-native Taiwanese English teachers to eliminate any potential language-based interference. In June 2009, the Chinese version of the questionnaire was pilot tested to them other than the participants in the formal study in September 2009. The response rate was 100 percent, as learners filled them out in my presence. I explained the purpose of this questionnaire to them and encouraged them to ask questions if they found any items unclear in meaning. The administration of the pilot-study lasted 30 minutes. All questionnaire responses were transcribed and analysed for descriptive data. Prior to analysis, the verbatim was carefully checked by an invited senior Taiwanese English teacher.

After the pilot study several modifications were made. For example, one background question with regard to their previous education was refined with one more answer choice. Also, one item which seemed confusing to the subjects was revised afterwards for use in the formal study.

Formal study

Data collected from the questionnaire provided substantially rich evidence for the analysis of this study. The self-administered questionnaires were conducted twice. The pre- and post-questionnaires were undertaken in September 2009 and June 2010 respectively during the school semesters.

The implementation of the pre-questionnaire was undertaken in September 2009. Students were told that they were going to answer questions about their backgrounds, motivation and perceptions towards English learning. As was the case in the pilot study, 64 items on motivation employed the 5-point Likert scaled format, anchored at 5 (strongly agree) and 1 (strongly disagree). The purpose of the questionnaire in

conjunction with the administration procedure of data collection was described verbally to the subjects. They voluntarily signed a consent form and understood that they may drop out of the study at any stage if they felt uncomfortable with the questions. During the process of the implementation the respondents were encouraged to address any queries or uncertainties regarding the questionnaire items and I was available to answer questions the students had about the wording or content of the items. It took them approximately 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. As the administrator of the study, I ensured that all items were completed when collecting the questionnaires. A total of 163 students completed the survey and the response rate was 100%.

The implementation of the post-questionnaire was undertaken in June 2010, one week before the school term ended. The post-questionnaire contained an additional section — a section of five open-ended questions. The additional open-ended items were intended to elicit participants' perceptions of CLT activities so they could freely express their ideas about the CLT approach and activities. The administration of the post-questionnaire took longer than the pre-questionnaire, approximately 45 minutes. Other than the open-ended questions that were analysed qualitatively, the motivation items were quantitatively measured by the SPSS 18.0 package.

3.6.3 Interview

In order to obtain information from the subjects in relation to their learning motivation and perceptions of the classroom instructional approach and activities, interviews were undertaken. During September 2009 to June 2010, I conducted interviews with 27 of the participants who were selected based on their motivation scores and their English proficiency test scores (see Table 3.1). The interview questions were structured, and interviews were conducted in Chinese in a systematic and consistent way. The questions were designed and reviewed carefully in advance to ensure clarity and understanding.

With regard to the interview procedure, it was important that the researcher

explained the process of the interview to the participants in advance. Therefore, I told them how long each interview session would last and what kind of questions would be asked. All interviews were conducted in Chinese due to their limited English speaking proficiency. I encouraged them to freely give their points of view under the circumstances that they felt comfortable with the questions. They were informed of the recording, which was stated on the consent form distributed to and signed by them individually earlier. It was also confirmed that their identities would not be revealed and the information they provided in the interview would be strictly confidential. All interviews took place in a small classroom. Each individual interview session that lasted one hour was audio-taped upon the agreement of the subjects beforehand and was transcribed verbatim afterwards. I translated the excerpts of transcribed verbatim from the participating student responses in the interview into English. A senior Taiwan English lecturer then assisted in reviewing the two to avoid a gap in meaning between English and Chinese. Eventually, the interview data were analysed with reference to this study's research questions.

3.6.4 English proficiency test

The present study used an official, simulated TOEIC practice test, published by the ETS, a globally recognised standardised test organization, as the measure of the participants' English proficiency. The TOEIC reading and listening comprehension tests were administered to the participants twice, in September 2009 and June 2010 respectively. The listening test lasted 45 minutes and the reading test took 75 minutes. The two tests were paper-and-pencil tests, taking place in the School language laboratory. The answer sheets for the tests were in the form of computer score cards, which were scanned and read by a scoring machine.

3.6.5 Open-ended questions

In addition to the motivation scale and the English proficiency tests, five

open-ended questions were asked through a paper-based instrument to qualitatively evaluate students' perceptions of CLT activities and their self-report enhancement in learning. Two questions addressed participants' preferences towards CLT activities: "Which classroom activity do you like the most and why?" and "Which classroom activity do you like the least and why?" Another item concerned how they perceived their confidence in their own English proficiency at the end of the CLT programme. There was also one question, which asked if they preferred CLT or the traditional approach. The last question dealt with their sense of involvement in CLT activities. This item sought to elicit the factors that hindered their engagement in those activities.

3.7 Summary

In summary, at the outset of this chapter, the research framework was presented to examine the relationships between the components of this study — CLT instruction, learner motivation, learner English reading/listening proficiency. Next, a research timeline was provided. Then the identities of the participants were introduced followed by a detailed account of the instruments employed (the motivation questionnaire, the interview, English listening and reading proficiency test scores). What then followed was the description of the implementation of the CLT approach in relation to the syllabus design, teaching materials, activities adopted and instructional practices. Prior to an understanding of data analysis, data collection was also outlined. Eventually, integration of a quantitative and qualitative method contributed to the realisation of the outcomes of this study, which brings us to analyses of the research findings in the next chapter. In the following chapter, I report the research findings of the present study in the order of the research questions.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents the background information of the subjects based on the descriptive analysis of Section 1 of the motivation questionnaire. Since a mixed-method approach (Creswell, 2009) was undertaken in this study, the data analysis comprised two methodologies, the quantitative and the qualitative. A combination of quantitative (pre-test and post-test) and qualitative (interviews and open-ended questions) methods facilitated a grounded understanding of the effects of the CLT approach on students' motivation and English proficiency (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Whereas Section 4.2 introduces the analysis of the quantitative data resulting from Chang's (2002) motivation survey, Section 4.3 presents the analysis of the qualitative data. Finally, this chapter ends with the summary of the analysis of the data for this study in Section 4.4.

4.1 Demographics

This study employed the motivation questionnaire of a Taiwan scholar (Chang, 2002). The first 7 items in Section 1 of this questionnaire provided detailed background information of all 163 participating students. Of the 163 participants, 146 of them (89.6%) were females and only 17 (10.4%) were males (Table 4.1). Their ages ranged from 18 to 24, with an average of 19.40 years (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Gender ratio and average age of subjects (N=163)

Variables	N	%	Mean	S.D.
Gender				
Male	17.0	10.4		
Female	146.0	89.6		
Age			19.4	1.3

With respect to their academic background, almost all (98.8%) were incoming

students studying in the same nursing university. 44.8% of the subjects were studying in the 4-year programme whereas 55.2% of them were in the 2-year programme. Regarding their major, 81.6% of the subjects studied nursing, 12.3% studied Exercise and Health Science, and only 6.1% of them studied Infant and Child Care. As for their previous education backgrounds, 35% of the subjects had attended vocational colleges, followed by vocational high schools (26.4%), 5-year or 3-year junior colleges (19.6%), comprehensive high schools (16%), general high schools (1.8%), and universities (1.2%) (See Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Academic background of subjects (N=163)

Variables	N	%
Year		
Freshman	161.0	98.8
Senior	2.0	1.2
Programme		
4-year	73.0	44.8
2-year	90.0	55.2
Major		
Nursing	133.0	81.6
Infant & Child Care	10.0	6.1
Exercise & Health Science	20.0	12.3
Previous education		
General high school	3.0	1.8
Comprehensive high school	26.0	16.0
Vocational high school	43.0	26.4
Vocational college	57.0	35.0
5-year/3-year junior college	32.0	19.6
University	2.0	1.2

The remaining two items in Section 1 of the questionnaire concerned the subjects' desired and possible future English proficiency level. Descriptive analysis of the two items in Table 4.3 demonstrated that on average 78.6% of the participants desired their English proficiency level to be either good, excellent or native-like while their self-perceived possible future English proficiency level was measured a relatively low

of 71.2%, implying that the subjects wished they had a good command of English but were not confident of their abilities in achieving the desired English proficiency level. Beyond this, further analysis was derived by performing crosstabs of two- and four-year programme with their previous education, desired English proficiency and possible future English proficiency level. Table 4.3 illustrated that there were no significant differences in pupils' desired English proficiency between 4-year and 2-year programme students. However, there was a significant difference between them in their previous education ($p<.001$) and their self-perceived possible future English proficiency ($p<.05$). To obtain a deeper understanding of the distinction between 4-year and 2-year students' perceptions, I re-grouped and renamed the variables in terms of their possible future English proficiency as average/under average proficiency and above average proficiency. The former refers to the perception of poor, fair, and average English proficiency level and the latter good, excellent and native-like English proficiency level. As can be seen in Table 4.3 and 4.4, the emerging result of chi-square analysis was that students' programme of study was significantly related to their previous education and perception towards their future English proficiency level. 2-year students seemed to be more confident (Table 4.4) in their English proficiency than their 4-year counterparts and believed it was likely that they would achieve an above average English proficiency level in the future ($p<.05$).

Table 4.3 Crosstabs of 2/4-year programme with previous education, desired English proficiency and possible future English proficiency level (N=163)

Variables	4-year		2-year		Total		χ^2
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Previous education							159.027***
General high school	3.0	4.1	0	0	3.0	1.8	
Comprehensive high school	26.0	35.6	0	0	26.0	16.0	
Vocational high school	43.0	58.9	0	0	43.0	26.4	
Vocational college	1.0	1.4	56.0	62.2	57.0	35.0	
5-year/3-year junior college	0	0	2.0	2.2	2.0	1.2	
University	0	0	32.0	35.6	32.0	19.6	

Variables	4-year		2-year		Total		χ^2
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Desired English proficiency level							6.323
Poor	2.0	2.7	0	0	2.0	1.2	
Fair	1.0	1.4	3.0	3.3	4.0	2.5	
Average	11.0	15.1	18.0	20.0	29.0	17.8	
Good	34.0	46.6	44.0	48.9	78.0	47.9	
Excellent	16.0	21.9	21.0	23.3	37.0	22.7	
Native-like	9.0	12.3	4.0	4.4	13.0	8.0	
Possible future English proficiency							12.417 *
Poor	0	0	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.6	
Fair	5.0	6.8	1.0	1.1	6.0	3.7	
Average	22.0	30.1	18.0	20.0	40.0	24.5	
Good	30.0	41.1	34.0	37.8	64.0	39.3	
Excellent	9.0	12.3	28.0	31.1	37.0	22.7	
Native-like	7.0	9.6	8.0	8.9	15.0	9.2	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 4.4 Crosstabs of 2/4-year programme with possible future average/under average and above average English proficiency level (N=163)

Variables	4-year		2-year		Total		χ^2
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Possible future English proficiency							4.282*
Average/under average proficiency (Poor, fair, average)	27.0	37.0	20.0	22.2	47.0	28.8	
Above average proficiency (Good, excellent, native-like)	46.0	63.0	70.0	77.8	116.0	71.2	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2 Quantitative analysis

The motivation factors resulting from Chang (2002) were adopted for the analysis of the quantitative data. Mean scores for each motivation factor in terms of two and four-year programme students were calculated and are reported in Table 4.5. The participants' responses were computed and analysed using SPSS version 18.0 for Windows. Responses were numerically coded, processed, and analysed in a consistent and organised way. With regard to the statistical procedures, first of all, descriptive

statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and frequency distribution were used to illustrate the participants' responses to the motivation factors. Via the use of a pre-CLT questionnaire and a post-CLT questionnaire survey, learner motivation was measured quantitatively. As can be seen in Table 4.5, the means for three motivation components, Factors 4, 8, and 9, respectively, were slightly enhanced after CLT instruction: For Motivation Factor 4, 'Requirement', (M = 3.47 for the pre-test, and M = 3.57 for the post-test), Motivation Factor 8, 'Need for Studying Abroad', (M = 3.76 for the pre-test, and M = 3.79 for the post-test), and Motivation Factor 9, 'Need for Future Career', (M = 3.82 for the pre-test, and M = 3.83 for the post-test). Two motivation components, factor 2 and factor 4, were measured significant.

Table 4.5 Mean, standard deviation and t value of learners' motivation (N = 163)

Motivation components	Mean & standard deviation (SD)		
	Pre-test (SD)	Post-test (SD)	t
F1: Intrinsic motivation	3.38 (0.66)	3.31 (0.66)	-1.376
F2: Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people	3.83 (0.62)	3.73 (0.58)	-2.305*
F3: Implied value with English	3.64 (0.52)	3.58 (0.49)	-1.469
F4: Requirement	3.47 (0.52)	3.57 (0.41)	2.416*
F5: Desire to integrate into the target community	2.66 (0.87)	2.55 (0.81)	-1.883
F6: Technology and knowledge	3.86 (0.55)	3.84 (0.50)	-0.484
F7: Need for good performance in English class	3.45 (0.57)	3.44 (0.64)	-0.213
F8: Need for study abroad	3.76 (0.79)	3.79 (0.69)	0.471
F9: Need for future career	3.82 (0.59)	3.83 (0.58)	0.039

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

To derive the effects of CLT instruction on participants' learning motivation, a paired-samples t-test was further carried out. Statistics in Table 4.5 indicated that for Factor 2, labeled 'Interest in Foreign Languages, Cultures and People', the post-test score was significantly lower than the pre-test score ($t = -2.305$, $p < .05$). Conversely, for Factor 4, termed 'Requirement', the post-test score was significantly higher than the

pre-test score ($t = 2.416$, $p < .05$).

To acquire further analysis in more depth from emerging data, I used an independent samples t-test across 4-year and 2-year programme subjects to compare their motivation orientations. As shown in Table 4.6, the analysis indicated that there were significant differences between the two groups of sample subjects in factor 4, 8, and 9. That is, their motivation factors were significantly different. 2-year programme students seemed to possess a higher level of motivation towards studying English for exams or higher grades ($t = -2.038$, $p<.05$) labelled 'requirement' (factor 4), for 'the need for studying abroad' ($t = -2.320$, $p<.05$) termed factor 8, and for 'the need for future career' phrased factor 9 ($t = -2.753$, $p<.01$) than did their 4-year counterparts.

Table 4.6 Mean, standard deviation and t value of learners' motivation between 4-year and 2-year programme students

Variables	4-year		2-year		t value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
F1: Intrinsic motivation	3.2	0.4	3.2	0.3	-0.722
F2: Interest in foreign languages, culture, and people	3.8	0.7	3.9	0.5	-1.069
F3: Implied value with English	3.6	0.6	3.7	0.5	-1.160
F4: Requirement	3.0	0.6	3.2	0.6	-2.038*
F5: Desire to integrate into the target community	2.5	0.8	2.7	0.9	-1.463
F6: Technology and knowledge	3.9	0.6	3.9	0.5	-0.106
F7: Need for good performance in English class	3.5	0.6	3.4	0.5	0.700
F8: Need for studying abroad	3.6	0.9	3.9	0.7	-2.320*
F9: Need for future career	3.7	0.6	3.9	0.5	-2.753**

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

In short, dependent samples t-tests were utilised to investigate the gains in the participants' motivation and listening/reading proficiency test scores after CLT instruction (Research questions one, two, three). Part of the enquiry of the present study was to examine student learning outcomes emerging from CLT instruction, which were

represented by participants' listening and reading proficiency test scores. As the same TOEIC listening and reading tests were administered twice, comparisons of the pre-test and post-test scores revealed the potential marked differences in their English proficiency as they appear in Tables 4.7 and 4.8. Descriptive analyses and paired-samples t-tests were performed to examine the differences between participants' English pre-CLT and post-listening as well as their pre-CLT and post-reading proficiency scores.

Table 4.7 Mean, standard deviation, and t value of learners' English listening proficiency test scores (N=163)

		Mean	SD	Mean (Posttest-Pretest L)	t-value	P value
Listening	Pretest	224.08	68.339	19.39	4.076*	.000
	Posttest	243.47	70.309			

*p <.05

Table 4.8 Mean, standard deviation, and t value of learners' English reading proficiency test scores (N=163)

		Mean	SD	Mean (Posttest-Pretest L)	t-value	P value
Listening	Pretest	141.05	59.234	7.51	1.702*	.091
	Posttest	148.56	60.059			

*p <.05

Apart from the above, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was carried out to explore the correlations between motivation factors and their relationship to learners' English listening proficiency (see Table 4.9) and reading proficiency (see Table 4.10), represented by research questions four and five, whose results were shown in the next chapter respectively.

Table 4.9 Correlations between gains in learners' motivation orientations and listening proficiency (N = 163)

Gains in correlations between pretest & post test	L	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
Listening proficiency (L)										
F1. Intrinsic motivation	-0.002									
F2. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, people	0.086	0.427**								
F3. Implied value with English	0.193**	0.304**	0.469**							
F4. Requirement	0.114	0.001	0.244**	0.139*						
F5. Desire to integrate into the target community	-0.038	0.031	-0.033	0.117	0.087					
F6. Technology and knowledge	0.096	0.446**	0.563**	0.493**	0.268**	-0.182*				
F7. Need for good performance in English class	0.066	0.100	0.161*	0.324**	0.093	0.129	0.232**			
F8. Need for study abroad	0.093	0.202**	0.461**	0.356**	0.280**	0.011	0.396**	0.241**		
F9. Need for future career	0.068	0.163*	0.360**	0.374**	0.358**	0.011	0.478**	0.279**	0.396**	

* $p < .05$

Table 4.10 Correlations between gains in learners' motivation orientations and reading proficiency (N = 163)

Gains in correlations between pretest & post test	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Reading proficiency (R)										
F1. Intrinsic motivation	-0.020									
F2. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people	-0.052	0.427**								
F3. Implied value with English	-0.002	0.304**	0.469**							
F4. Requirement	0.050	0.001	0.244**	0.139*						
F5. Desire to integrate into the target community	-0.026	0.031	-0.033	0.117	0.087					
F6. Technology and knowledge	-0.100	0.446**	0.563**	0.493**	0.268**	-0.182*				
F7. Need for good performance in English class	-0.063	0.100	0.161*	0.324**	0.093	0.129	0.232**			
F8. Need for study abroad	-0.052	0.202**	0.461**	0.356**	0.280**	0.011	0.396**	0.241**		
F9. Need for future career	-0.031	0.163*	0.360**	0.374**	0.358**	0.011	0.478**	0.279**	0.396**	

* $p < .05$

The quantitative method was further conducted to analyse the data collected from the TOEIC proficiency test scores. To illustrate a measure of the normality of the participants' TOEIC scores, descriptive analysis was performed and a histogram and Q-Q plot each for pre/post-CLT listening/reading test scores were produced and provided in the graphs below. As shown in Figures 4.1~4.8, the data exhibited an overall normal distribution in both histogram and normal Q-Q plot for pre/post-listening/reading test scores.

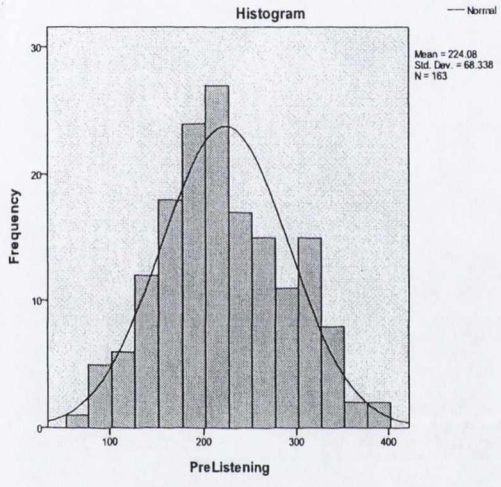

Figure 4.1 Histogram showing the distribution of pre-CLT listening test scores

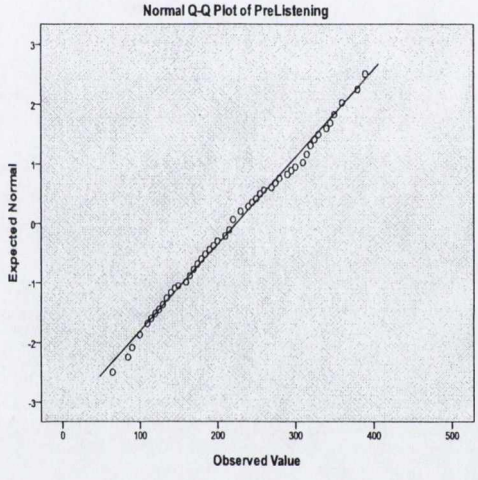

Figure 4.2 Q-Q plot showing normal distribution of pre-CLT listening test scores

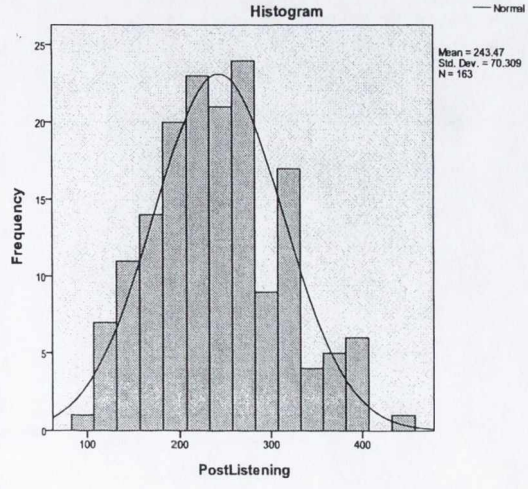

Figure 4.3 Histogram showing the distribution of post-CLT listening test scores

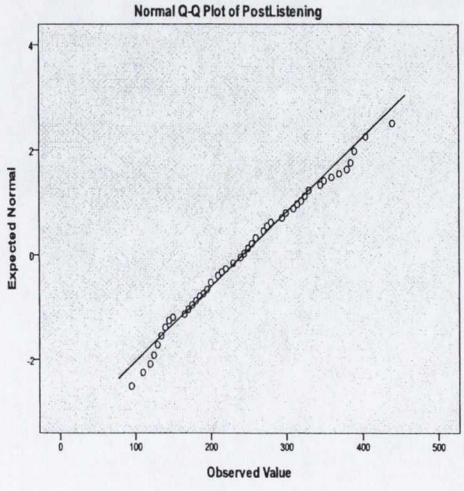

Figure 4.4 Q-Q plot showing normal distribution of post-CLT listening test scores

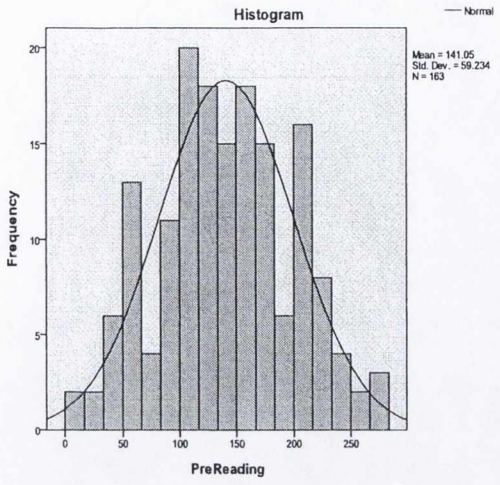

Figure 4.5 Histogram showing normal distribution of pre-CLT reading test scores

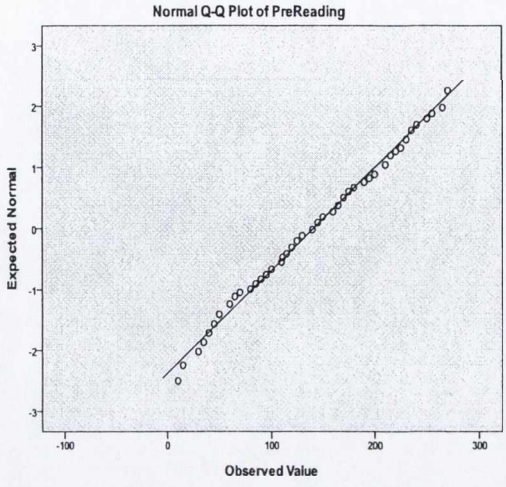

Figure 4.6 Q-Q plot showing normal distribution of pre-CLT reading test scores

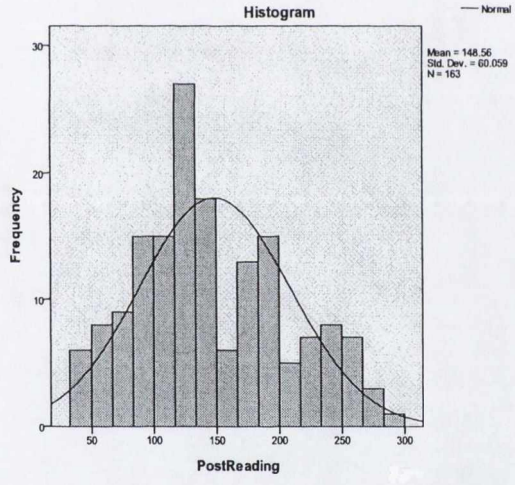

Figure 4.7 Histogram showing normal distribution of post-CLT reading test scores

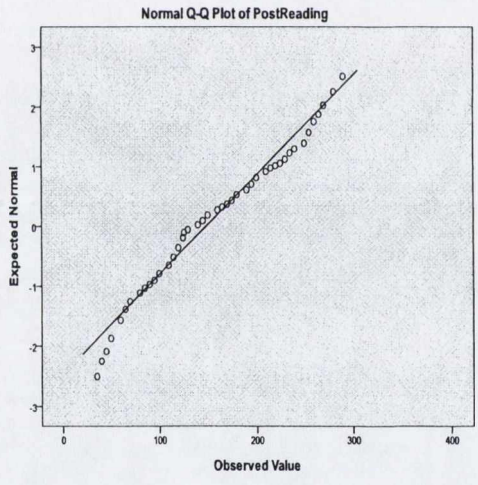

Figure 4.8 Q-Q plot showing normal distribution of post-CLT reading test scores

4.3 Qualitative analysis

The qualitative data consisted of two components — the analytic results from the interview and the open-ended questionnaire items included in the post-questionnaire survey.

After all interviews were fully audiotaped, I transcribed the subjects' responses. Upon receipt of each transcript, I verified its authenticity by listening to the recordings

of the corresponding individual interview, sifted through every page of the transcripts and annotated the margins with my comments and summaries, and made necessary revisions. Prior to analysis, each transcript was given to participants to read and to annotate as they saw fit. I had each participant sign his/her own transcript to indicate that they had read it and agreed. Before I progressed to the analysis stage, the transcribed verbatim was checked by a third party — a senior Taiwanese English teacher. After a repeated process of sorting, inducting, and deducting, I identified emerging themes and patterns and tried exploring the interconnections among them and the interviewees' quotes were therefore subsumed into four different thematic categories: the learner factor, the peer factor, the implementation factor, and the administration factor. To begin with, the learner factor involves factors on the part of the participants with regard to their low English proficiency, inhibiting personality, and their prior English learning experience. The theme of 'the learner factor' emerged when I combined the interviewees' responses "When it comes to a listening task, it's Greek to me!", "I have limited English, so giving advice in English is hard.", "I have limited vocabulary and poor understanding of structure.", and "I find it difficult to produce language." Their reflections such as the above illustrated their limited English ability in English listening, speaking, structure, vocabulary and pronunciation, which came under the umbrella 'the learner factor'. Also relevant to the theme of 'the learner factor' are the subjects' personality and their prior English learning experience. As the subjects indicated that "I'm too shy to act in front of my peers.", "I'm afraid of making mistakes.", "I don't want to interact with someone I don' know.", or "I'm used to being a quiet learner.", it showed that the factor originated from the learners themselves, hence the emerging theme 'the learner factor'. Similarly, when a learner's pair-work or group-work partner was labelled as "peer with a lower proficiency level who does not help", the theme was easily identified as 'the peer factor'. The peer factor covers aspects resulted from the participants' partners in pair or group work, such as their partners' low English proficiency, their unwillingness or low motivation to participate in

activities. Other than the learner factor and the peer factor, what was reported by the interviewees with regard to course design, class materials and the activities that affected the process of instructional practices were subsumed into 'the implementation factor'. Some typical extracts from interviews are "The reading group work was confusing." and "How my teacher actually conducted the instruction impacted my engagement.". When learners stated that "Something that always bothers me is the desk arrangement, the classroom set-up" or "The class was so big. It simply didn't work out that way", the theme was then titled 'the administration factor' as it concerned the seating arrangement or the size of the class. Consequently, after a repeated process of sifting, grouping, and regrouping across all interview questions, I created a self-inspected analysis checklist of questions which I linked to the research questions and the questions were interpreted afterwards to derive meaningful understanding (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Such understanding was represented by the analysis of four factors emerging from the interview data in response to research question 6. These factors were justified as it was stated earlier in Chapter 2 of this study in relation to motivation studies and studies on Taiwan education system that the participants for this study were lower English proficiency students in a vocational university where a majority of whom lacked learning motivation and had been used to traditional teaching methods. Some quotations below that were distinctively noticeable exemplify each of the above factors.

> *"It's my own problem. I know that. A lack of vocabulary and low English ability limited the expression of my ideas and arguments." (Learner factor)*

> *"I wish I could pick my own partner because it just kills me pairing up with the wrong person. It's really frustrating working with someone who was not paying attention, which affected me and led to a total loss of interest and motivation." (Peer factor)*

> *"If the topic for discussion had been more engaged, I would have been more inclined to share my experiences and points of view." (Implementation factor)*

"It's really difficult for me to face and be close to other students within my group due to the configuration of the room. In that case, I'd rather work individually and not communicate with my partner. " (Administration factor)

As for the open-ended questions, they went through an identical analytic process as the interview data. The rationale behind the meaning of open-ended questions was that it was considered a means to acquire a more extensive representation of the problems being investigated, which allowed for a broad perspective on the part of the learners during the analysis of the data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The narratives below were some of the sample responses to a few open-ended questions.

"I don't relate to role-playing as I am not a born actor. I forget all my lines and besides, I don't think my audience would understand me." (Q #66)

"My reading competence wasn't enhanced during the course of the activities. The tasks were challenging and mostly I felt bored." (Q #67)

"I prefer the traditional teaching method since I learn more in this way. What's the point of having a discussion with someone who is no better than me and I don't make sense of the exchanges?" (Q #69)

It emerges from these narratives the theme of 'the learner factor' when learners lack confidence in themselves (narrative to question #66), the theme of 'the implementation factor' for an inappropriate choice of class materials (narrative to question #67), and the theme of 'the peer factor' while their peers were responsible for keeping them engaged and interested in the task (narrative to question #69).

Through such process of coding, sorting, analyses and interpretation, the participants' experiences as EFL learners were refined and extracted from pieces of information to unravel inferences and conclusions vis-à-vis their motivation and engagement in the CLT classroom.

4.4 Summary

The data analysis for this study comprised two methodologies, the quantitative and

the qualitative. This chapter begins with the demographics information of the subjects based on the description analysis of the items in Section 1 of the motivation questionnaire. Demographics contain the subjects' gender ratio, average age, and their current and former academic backgrounds. Descriptive analysis also pertains to two specific items regarding the subjects' perceptions of their desired and possible future English proficiency level.

This chapter also reports on the ways in which dependent sample paired t-tests and the Pearson product-moment correlation were utilised to investigate and analyse the differences and correlations in the participants' motivation and their English listening and reading test scores after CLT instruction.

CHAPTER 5
RESULTS

This chapter presents the outcomes of the study based on the analyses of the relationships among the Communicative Language Teaching approach, participants' learning motivation, and their English proficiency. It only presents the findings; full discussion will follow in the next chapter. To address the six research questions, this chapter is divided into seven sections. Section one responds to research question one, dealing with the effects of the CLT approach on the participants' English learning motivation. Section two examines the effects of the CLT approach on the participants' English listening proficiency, reflected by research question two. Section three investigates the effects of CLT on their English reading proficiency, represented by research question three. Section four, which provides findings to research question four, explores the relationship between the students' learning motivation and their English listening proficiency. Next, section five features results for research question five, aiming at the relationship between the students' learning motivation and their English reading proficiency. The data for the above five research questions were analysed quantitatively and their results were in part supported by interview outcomes. Section six highlights the factors that hinder students from engaging in CLT activities by presenting the outcomes of the interviews and the open-ended survey. Finally, section seven is a recap on the overall findings for this study.

5.1 Research Question 1: What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' learning motivation?

This section sought to answer research question 1 concerning the effects of the CLT approach on participants' learning motivation. Via the use of a pre-CLT questionnaire and a post-CLT questionnaire survey, learner motivation was measured quantitatively. As explained in the previous chapter, a paired-samples t-test was carried

out. As seen below in Table 5.1, a shortened table adapted from Table 4.5, the means for three motivation components, Factors 4, 8, and 9, respectively, were slightly enhanced after CLT instruction. The finding was that after the implementation of CLT, more students felt the need to study English for examinations, to study abroad and to study for their future career. Of the three motivation components, the 'Requirement' factor had the biggest enhancement, confirming what was reflected on earlier in the Literature Review section that instrumental motivation was a stronger variable in achieving successful learning in comparison with intrinsic motivation in EFL contexts.

Table 5.1 Mean, standard deviation and t value of learners' motivation (N = 163)

Motivation components	Mean & standard deviation (SD)		
	Pre-test (SD)	Post-test (SD)	t
F2: Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people	3.83 (0.62)	3.73 (0.58)	-2.305*
F4: Requirement	3.47 (0.52)	3.57 (0.41)	2.416*
F8: Need for study abroad	3.76 (0.79)	3.79 (0.69)	0.471
F9: Need for future career	3.82 (0.59)	3.83 (0.58)	0.039

*p <.05

As explained in the previous chapter, a paired-samples t-test was carried out. It can be seen from Table 5.1 that there were significant differences in Factors 2 ($t = -2.305$, $p < .05$) and Factor 4 ($t = 2.416$, $p < .05$) between the respondents' pre-CLT and post-CLT motivation components. The reflected statistics showed that CLT instruction had a negative effect on participants' interest in the English language, the culture and people whereas its effect on their motivation in terms of 'Requirement' was positive. In other words, after the intervention of CLT instruction, the participants were less interested in English, the target culture and people. Nonetheless, they demonstrated a higher level of motivation towards studying English for exams or higher grades.

In the next two sections, the effects of CLT instruction on participants' English listening and reading proficiency are discussed individually.

5.2 Research Question 2: What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English listening proficiency?

The results in this section address Research Question 2: 'What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English listening proficiency?" First of all, to answer this question, descriptive analysis was performed to examine the differences in participants' English pre-CLT and post-listening proficiency scores. As seen earlier in Table 4.7, the participants made significant improvements in listening proficiency after CLT instruction (M = 224.08, SD = 68.339 for the pre-test; M = 243.47, SD = 70.309 for the post-test). Following from this investigation was a paired samples t-test to attest the above outcome, where it was found that participants made significant learning gains ($t = 4.076$, $p < .05$) in English listening proficiency. Their English listening proficiency was enhanced after CLT instruction, suggesting that the CLT approach has a positive effect on students' English listening proficiency.

Table 4.7 Mean, standard deviation (SD), and t value of learners' English listening proficiency test scores (N=163)

		Mean	SD	Mean (Posttest-Pretest L)	t-value	P value
Listening	Pretest	224.08	68.339	19.39	4.076*	.000
	Posttest	243.47	70.309			

*p <.05

5.3 Research Question 3: What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English reading proficiency?

The results in this section relate to Research Question 3: 'What are the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' English reading proficiency?' To explore the effects of CLT instruction on participants' English reading proficiency, descriptive analysis was performed. The statistics in Table 4.8 illustrated

that the participants made a slight improvement in their reading proficiency, with a slightly higher mean and standard deviation for the post-test (M = 148.56, SD = 60.059) than the pre-test (M = 141.05, SD = 59.234).

Table 4.8 Mean, standard deviation (SD), and t value of learners' English reading proficiency test scores (N=163)

		Mean	SD	Mean (Posttest-Pretest L)	t-value	P value
Listening	Pretest	141.05	59.234	7.51	1.702*	.091
	Posttest	148.56	60.059			

*p <.05

Similarly, the above result was based upon the analysis of a paired-samples t-test. Table 4.8 displays the effects of CLT instruction on the subjects' English reading proficiency. It was evident from the analysis of the differences between their English pre-CLT and post-CLT reading test scores that the participants made no significant learning gains in English reading proficiency (t = 1.702, p = .091), indicating that CLT instruction did not have a positive effect on participants' English reading proficiency.

5.4 Research Question 4: What is the relationship between students' learning motivation and their English listening proficiency?

The results in this section pertain to Research Questions 4: 'What is the relationship between students' learning motivation and their English listening proficiency?' As had been expected, a higher motivation level after CLT instruction would yield higher English listening proficiency test score. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was carried out to investigate the relationship between the two variables. As demonstrated in Table 5.2, a shortened table from Table 4.9, it was found that there was a positive relationship between the subjects' motivation orientation Factor 3 'implied value with English' and their English listening proficiency. It should be noted that Factor 3 of the motivation orientations includes items that reflect students' intrinsic interest in learning English. In other words, the finding suggests that the more intrinsically interested in learning English students are, the higher their English listening proficiency.

Table 5.2 Correlations between gains in learners' motivation orientations and listening proficiency (N = 163)

Gains in correlations between pretest & post test	L	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
F3. Implied value with English	0.193**	0.304**	0.469**							

* $p < .05$

5.5 Research Question 5: What is the relationship between students' learning motivation and their English reading proficiency?

The results in this section address research question 5: 'What is the relationship between students' motivation and their English reading proficiency?' To answer this question, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (Boslaugh, & Watters, 2008) was carried out. As can be seen in Table 4.10, there were no gains in correlations between motivational variables and the English reading test scores, suggesting that learners' reading proficiency was not enhanced even if their motivation level was raised.

Table 4.10 Correlations between gains in learners' motivation orientations and reading proficiency (N = 163)

Gains in correlations between pre-test & post-test	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Reading proficiency (R)										
F1. Intrinsic motivation	-0.020									
F2. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people	-0.052	0.427**								
F3. Implied value with English	-0.002	0.304**	0.469**							
F4. Requirement	0.050	0.001	0.244**	0.139*						
F5. Desire to integrate into the target community	-0.026	0.031	-0.033	0.117	0.087					
F6. Technology and knowledge	-0.100	0.446**	0.563**	0.493**	0.268**	-0.182*				
F7. Need for good performance in English class	-0.063	0.100	0.161*	0.324**	0.093	0.129	0.232**			
F8. Need for study abroad	-0.052	0.202**	0.461**	0.356**	0.280**	0.011	0.396**	0.241**		
F9. Need for future career	-0.031	0.163*	0.360**	0.374**	0.358**	0.011	0.478**	0.279**	0.396**	

* $p < .05$

5.6 Research Question 6: 'What factors may hinder students from engaging in a communication-based classroom?'

This section focuses on the findings based on all eleven interview questions (Appendix C). Six out of eleven interview questions were related to the topic of learning English. They included the participants' reasons for studying English, whether they liked studying English, whether they thought it was important to learn English, and their previous English learning experience. One question was designed to enquire their past experience and future intention of studying, working, or living in an English-speaking country. The last three questions were directed towards CLT activities, i.e., whether they considered the activities interesting and helpful, whether they preferred the CLT approach or the traditional teaching method, and the last question that addressed Research Question Six: "What factors may hinder students from engaging in a communication-based classroom?"

The subjects' responses to research question six were based on the analysis of the collected data from the above sources. Each typical response to an individual interview theme was selected as representative quotes. Similar excerpts, however, were discarded or combined into the same scenario. After a vigilant process of sorting, inducting, and deducting, the interviewees' quotes were then subsumed into four categories: the Learner Factor, the Peer Factor, the Implementation Factor, and the Administration Factor. They are described in the following subsections separately.

The Learner Factor

One of the interview questions asked whether the interviewees thought the CLT activities adopted were interesting, difficult or helpful to them. Not surprisingly, a majority of them thought CLT activities were interesting. However, a few of them found CLT activities challenging due to their low English proficiency and certain personality

characteristics, such as low confidence levels and high levels of anxiety.

Low English proficiency

"When it comes to a listening task, it's Greek to me! I am faced with the challenge of understanding English native speakers. This poses a major impediment for me to become engaged in activities." (C4)

"The problem-solving activity is kind of boring. I don't have a good solution for my partner. Besides, I have limited English, so giving advice in English is hard. This activity is neither interesting nor effective because it's difficult for me." (A3)

"The problem-solving activity requires writing and it's tough. So, I dislike it!" (D5)

"There are some new words in each problem, which makes this activity a bit more challenging." (A1)

"The information-gap activity is difficult for me because I don't know how to ask questions in English." (D2)

"I have limited vocabulary and poor understanding of structure. When the problem-solving activity is going on, I'm stuck with language! What's more, I'm not good at giving advice. I'm just not good at it!" (B5)

"Most communicative activities we had in class are fun but it's just me. I lack the abilities to involve myself in them." (C5)

"What stops me from participating fully in communicative activities is my own problem. I have difficulty with listening, speaking, reading, writing. I have little vocabulary and most of all, I feel frightened at learning English." (A4)

The participating students' response to whether they preferred the CLT or the traditional teaching method also highlights their limited English ability as a potential factor in hindering their engagement in CLT activities.

"The traditional method is perhaps better since I'm a low proficiency student. I find it difficult to produce language during communicative

activities." (B1)

"Role-play is difficult for me. I have difficulty pronouncing most words. Besides, I don't know how to act." (B4)

"I was not involved in CLT activities. Most of the time the teacher explained in English and I didn't understand her. It made things more complicated when she explained the rules of a game in English. After she explained, I still didn't know how to play the game. I turned to ask my classmate and she did not seem to understand either. I was not the only one who showed signs of confusion, I think. How can I engage myself when I don't understand the rules of the activity?" (D6)

"I disliked this activity because my partner had my answer and I couldn't help peeping at her work sheet. This caused the activity to be ineffective." (C1)

The learners' own personality traits could also serve as a hindering factor.

Personality

"I'm too shy to act in front of my peers. I have stage fright. I became so clumsy when I spoke English. I was just so tense. I couldn't relax myself." (B6)

"Speaking in front of everyone can be so nerve racking. When I saw people staring at me, I forgot all my lines." (D5)

"My teacher asked us to participate but I was so afraid to speak and to make mistakes that I usually remained quiet in activities." (C7)

"Watching others role-play is fun but doing it myself is horrifying. I am shy and afraid of making mistakes in front of others. Speaking is extremely difficult for me, not to mention speaking in public." (B3)
"I'm not involved in the communicative activities. I found them burdensome. Too many responsibilities, too much to do!" (A4)

"Role-play drives me crazy. Every time I get on stage, I become so nervous that I want to get down instantly. When I'm nervous, my mind goes blank and I don't know what to say!" (D7)

A few interviewees expressed the importance of feeling comfortable within the pair/group work in the classroom. To them, knowing their partner(s) well enough so the working relationships among peers remain valuable and constructive is very important.

> *"I'd rather interact with someone I know. We are incoming students. Everybody is new. The effect of learning is not good if I have to interact with someone I don't know or from another class." (A6)*

> *"The reason I am not involved in the activities is that I don't want to interact with someone I don't know. I'd rather have interaction with students from my own class. If I know the person I'm talking to, it's likely I'd participate better." (D1)*

Some participants tended to resist class participation as a result of their prior learning experience in the traditional teacher-centred classroom prior to entering college:

> **Prior English learning experience**
>
> *"I'm used to the traditional teaching method. The communicative way is acceptable but I'm kind of shy when I was asked to stand up or walk around the room, asking questions. I'm just not used to it. When I have difficulty pronouncing some words, I'm afraid of making mistakes and therefore tend to use Chinese instead in pairs or groups. If I have enough practice, I think I'd feel more confident." (B5)*

> *"I guess I'm used to being a quiet learner. Before I entered this university, I hardly ever opened my mouth. I was not encouraged to speak in the classroom. That's why I've always been a passive learner. I feel more comfortable this way." (C6)*

In some respects, the learners seemed to be more concerned that they pass exams, get high grades, or meet the graduating requirement.

> *"I prefer the traditional teaching method because I did not learn much from games and others. They took too much time from our class hours. With the traditional way, I learn more rules and vocabulary and others within the same period of time. The traditional method is more systematic and organised. The communicative way is sometimes chaos, fun but not very effective. It does not help with taking exams."*

(B6)

Within the CLT pair or group work, the learner's partner plays an important role. He/She might be responsible for the success or failure of language acquisition. A number of interviewees mentioned the peer factor as affecting their engagement in activities. They indicated that they were ready to interact with others during CLT activities, but were caught in a dilemma when their peers, whom they were not familiar with, tended not to involve themselves so much as they did. On the other hand, some participants were more interested in grammatical rule explanations than in communicative activities.

The Peer Factor

Within CLT pair work, the low proficiency level of a learner's partner can sometimes be a discouraging and inhibiting factor.

Low English proficiency

"I prefer working with someone at my language level or above in pair activities. Working with peers with a lower proficiency level does not help. I can't learn from them. Maybe I do not help them, either." (D1)

"One problem I encountered during role-play is that my partner forgot her line. The conversation could not go on smoothly and I felt embarrassed about it in front of my classmates." (C3)

"I don't understand my partner when we do information-gap activities. I was unable to write down anything when that happened." (A1)

The peer unwillingness to participate obstructs learners from engaging in the CLT classroom.

Peer unwillingness to participate

"The information-gap activity can be really ineffective if my partner is afraid to speak and unwilling to practise." (D4)

"Something that makes me less want to involve in communicative activities is that my partner has a low sense of motivation and participation in pair work. Even though I'm motivated to learn, her unwillingness to get involved gives me the cold shoulder, unfortunately. It was even worse when she kept answering me in Chinese." (D7)

The Implementation Factor

The implementation factor is associated with course design, class materials, the activities themselves, or classroom management that may affect its effectiveness.

Course design

"The CLT method does not help enhance my English abilities. None of the activities are attractive to me. There is no focus in this course. The course design is not consistent." (A6)

Disorganised activities

"The communicative method can be ineffective if the activities are disorganised. In that case, it's a waste of time." (C4)

"The reading group work was confusing. I think there was a lack of organisation in this activity. I was assigned as the group leader but there wasn't really much interaction in my group. Some students in my group did not participate at all. Not everyone in my group was interacting with others." (B3)

"Games are basically fun but sometimes when too many students are involved in a game, the learning effect can be limited, especially a game for a big group or the whole class." (A5)

Class materials

"I wish the topic studied would be different. I am less motivated by Michael Jackson as a celebrity. Hollywood stars are too far-reaching for me. A Taiwanese star such as Jay Joe would attract me more." (D3)

Sometimes the interviewee's responses demonstrated the importance of the teacher's role in the process of interaction.

Instructional practice

"How my teacher actually conducted the instruction impacted my

engagement. Interacting with my peers is a good thing but I wanted my mistakes to be identified and corrected by my teacher and not by my peers who did not have the competence to do so. I preferred immediate feedback from my teacher." (A7)

"I think it's meaningless discussing reading paragraphs in groups. There is no conclusion after discussions. I am not involved since I don't understand this passage. I still didn't know the points of my paragraph after we discussed it." (D2)

"The communicative activities are fun but I don't see the effects. I hardly ever improve. The effect is very limited. This stops me from actively participating in the activities." (A2)

In this study communicative activities did not seem to work for some students in that they preferred a formal way of studying English especially grammar. The results of the interview showed that some students wanted a grammar focus. Most participants claimed that they would rather study grammar in the traditional, formal way they had been used to.

"I don't know what to do during communicative activities. They do not provide me much grammar rules practice but many tests are given, anyway. The thing is, I do not have a higher English proficiency by the end of the semester." (D7)

Limited class time

"Role-play is a fun activity but I wish there were more class time for me and my partner to rehearse." (C5)

"Sometimes it can be frustrating when the teacher did not give us enough time for the assigned activity. A 15-minute role-play was simply not enough." (B6)

"I like games but it's often the case that there isn't enough time for them. It usually takes my teacher a lot of time to explain the rules of the game. It happened that we were just about to get thrilled, then all of a sudden, the game was over. Not everyone in the class got a turn to practise." (A5)

The Administration Factor

The classroom set-up, i.e., how the tables and chairs are arranged in a classroom can be a rather discouraging factor to some learners.

Seating arrangement

"Something that always bothers me is the desk arrangement, the classroom set-up. I tried to move my desk a bit so my partners and I could face each other when we talked in a semi-circle, but the room was really crowded. Our chairs bumped into each other. Sometimes I couldn't hear what my partner was saying because it's a very noisy room when everybody was talking. If we didn't move our chairs, the traditional set-up where tables and chairs were arranged in straight rows prohibited me from seeing my partners. It wasn't easy to participate in this way." (A6)

"The table arrangement in the classroom forced me to interact with the same partner. I most often turned to my classmate on my left or my right to form a pair. This is really discouraging because if I work with different partners, I can be exposed to different points of view." (D7)

"It is impossible to move around the table and chair! They are immobile. I mean, what do you expect? It's a language laboratory. There is no space to walk around and there are like three students I would always sit with. So, I was interacting with the same people all semester. This room is driving me crazy!" (B2)

Limited space in the classroom

"Our classroom is kind of crowded when a game is played. Even if all chairs are moved to the wall, the room is not spacious enough for a class work game. This can be sometimes discouraging to me and lowers my interest in playing games." (C6)

Large classes were pointed out by only a few interviewees to hinder them from engaging in activities.

Large class size

"I raised my hand, wishing that my teacher would walk to me because neither my partner nor I understand the problem to be solved.

However, the class was so big, with more than 25 pairs. By the time she took turns answering all our questions, the class would have been dismissed. It simply didn't work out that way." (D1)

Limited class time could affect how students acted in a CLT classroom.

Table 5.3 outlines all above factors.

Table 5.3 Factors hindering learner engagement in the CLT classroom.

Category of factor	Description
1. Learner factor	• Learner low proficiency • Learner personality characteristics • Learner prior learning experience
2. Peer factor	• Peer's low proficiency • Peer's unwillingness to participate
3. Implementation factor	• Inconsistent course design • Disorganised activities • Limited learning effect • Improper classroom management
4. Administration factor	• Unsupportive classroom set-up • Large class size • Insufficient instruction time

A brief summary is provided below in terms of the results for this study.

5.7 Summary

Given the findings, it can be concluded that although students expressed a bigger concern about the requirement of learning English, CLT instruction generally does not have a positive effect on their learning motivation, which in turn does not contribute to positive enhancement of their English proficiency, in either English listening or reading. However, the findings also showed that their English listening proficiency rather than their English reading proficiency was enhanced after CLT instruction.

The present study also investigates the major deterrents that stop the participants from engaging in interactive activities. On the one hand, there is a lack of English

proficiency on the part of the learners themselves. Their English incompetence causes them to have difficulty understanding their instructor and peers. On the other hand, problems may arise from their peers during activities. Also, the implementation issue with regard to the syllabus, the course content, and how the activities are arranged and organised is also a concern for some students. The administration factor pertaining to space, tables and chairs, large class size, and limited instruction time should not be neglected, as it is disadvantageous for interactive classroom activities.

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study aims to examine the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on Taiwanese vocational university students' learning motivation and English listening/reading proficiency and the relationship between motivation and English proficiency. Moreover, it seeks to look into the factors that hinder students' engagement in the communicative classroom. In the first section of this chapter are discussion of the findings and their contributing factors. In section two, conclusions are drawn based on the findings, followed by pedagogical implications in Section three. Then, I present practical recommendations by providing directions for future research in section four. In section five, the limitations of the study are addressed. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in the last section.

6.1 Discussion

In the previous chapter, the first finding in relation to research question 1 is that students are motivated to learn English because English is a required school subject. Conversely, they are not affected by 'intrinsic motivation' as they do not show 'interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people'. This phenomenon has been consistently evidenced in several EFL studies (Dörnyei, 2006; Dwaik & Shehadeh, 2010; Warden & Lin, 2000), where the subjects demonstrated a higher instrumental motivation than intrinsic motivation. Since instrumental motivation was regarded by some researchers to be a major motivation factor, particularly in EFL contexts (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Littlewood, 1984), and Taiwanese students were largely motivated by language learning requirements (Warden & Lin, 2000), raising learner motivation has become the challenge of every Taiwanese instructor. However, it was illustrated earlier in chapter two of this study that instrumental motivation does not last long and a learner with an integrative or intrinsic motivation is the one with a genuine interest in English.

Therefore, it is the learner integrative/intrinsic motivation rather than instrumental/extrinsic motivation that Taiwanese teachers need to raise by improving their teaching practices.

The findings of this study coincide in part with the results of Sato and Kleinsasser's (1999) study in that the motivation level of the participants in this study was not enhanced to a satisfying degree after CLT instruction. In this regard, the following quotes represented a commonly held view by a typical participating student in this study. When asked "Why are you studying English?", the subjects responded to a certain degree and most of their reasons relate to study and work.

> *"I tend to spend more time studying English. For one thing, I need to get good grades. English is important in my future job. I need it to improve my professional skills and expertise." (D06)*

> *"I study English mainly because it is a required subject. I learn English so as to pass the school requirement." (C3)*

> *"I think I learn English in order to use it in my future work. It will help me get a better job and my future work may require a lot of English use." (B2)*

> *"I learn English in school but I also learned English at a cram school when I was in primary school and in junior high. My parents had high hopes for me, so they pushed me to study English. To them, a good English competence is a must to obtain a good job in Taiwan." (A7)*

As English is a required school subject at all educational levels in Taiwan, all students must take the subject and learn it. Another interview question "If English were not a required subject, would you study it? Why or why not?" was intended to elicit participants' real interest and motivation in learning English. As it had been expected, more interviewees indicated their unwillingness to learn English in the case that it was not a required subject.

"If English were not a required school subject, I wouldn't study it because I'm not interested in learning English. I am often discouraged by my grades. No matter how hard I try, I get low grades. I think I have difficulty learning English." (B2)

"I wouldn't take it because I get too much pressure from it. I'd rather take the time out from English on other major subjects. My English ability is average. I think an average English ability is enough to handle my other major school subjects." (C4)

"I probably wouldn't take English. I can self-teach or self-study. I think reading novels is more fun than studying for tests. Taking a required course is too much workload. Pleasure reading for fun is more relaxing and easier and maybe more effective in learning English." (A1)

It is not surprising when asked whether they liked learning English or not, approximately half of the interviewees gave neutral opinions. That is, neither did they like English nor did they dislike English. Other interviewees responded with either positive or negative feelings towards learning English.

"Yes, I do. Learning English is difficult but I like it. When I get good grades, I have a sense of accomplishment. When I was in primary and junior high, my English teachers gave us rewards for good grades. I was encouraged to learn more when I received a prize." (D7)

"I do not like learning English because learning English is boring. My former English teachers had us do a lot of grammar exercises. There were very few opportunities to practise speaking. It was always grammar, grammar, and more grammar and more tests." (B6)

"I like learning English although I find it difficult. Most of my former English learning experience was test-oriented. In the past, I had to memorise a lot of vocabulary items and my teacher tested us on spelling. But in general, I like it because it is a very important subject and a tool in my profession." (D8)

Interestingly, the above responses reveal that whether the interviewees liked or

disliked learning English, they unanimously linked their reasons to grades or exams. Given these, it can be said that the findings of this study are in part consistent with the results of a few previous studies (Su & Wang, 2009; Warden & Lin, 2000). That is, the learner motivation in an EFL context is more towards instrumental or extrinsic motivation rather than intrinsic or integrative motivation.

Research questions two and three raise an important issue in whether the communicative language teaching approach has a beneficial effect on students' English proficiency. The results showed that after CLT instruction the subjects had significant gains in English listening test scores. However, they showed no evidence of consistent changes in English reading scores over the course of the study. There are a number of explanations for this. One explanation is that the nature of interactive activities is in itself in favour of the enhancement of a learner's listening and speaking competence. Although it might be argued that CLT is more listening and speaking oriented as opposed to reading and writing, this is never meant to imply that CLT focuses on teaching speaking only, a misconception fervently discussed in the CLT literature review (Jin, Singh, & Li, 2005; Tan, 2005; Thompson, 1996). In fact, CLT proponents have claimed that a holistic CLT curriculum should entail both productive and receptive skills (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Gu, 2010).

Another explanation for the discrepancy in the results between listening and reading test score gains after CLT instruction may be the 'implementation factor' (see Chapter 4). For the purpose of the present study, group discussion in a cooperative learning reading classroom was a means for achieving learner engagement in meaningful interaction to enhance their communicative competence in reading. However, what I discovered was that some of the participating interviewees in this study responded that CLT was not an effective method for enhancing reading comprehension. Some subjects claimed that they preferred the traditional teacher-centred method, which was regarded as a more effective way in achieving better performance in exams. This factor, amongst others, was observed to be a major

constraint discouraging learners from fully participating in reading activities.

Note further that the findings to research question two do not exist in isolation. Ma (2009), in conducting an empirical study on teaching listening in CLT, greatly improved his subjects' listening comprehension performance.

Some participating students expressed their points of view on how CLT activities affected their listening proficiency.

> *"I feel that I'm more motivated to participate in this activity because much class time is devoted to listening and speaking practice. The more I practise, the more I improve my listening comprehension ability." (B9)*

> *"The true or false game is fun. It's a great way to improve listening comprehension. It is challenging to me but it's very helpful. I think I can understand English native speakers more now." (C5)*

> *"CLT activities are interesting to learning. Role-play is a very effective way to enhance my listening and speaking ability. (C7)*

One open-ended survey question investigated participants' confidence levels prior to and after CLT instruction. In response to this, many subjects indicated that they became more confident in their listening ability after CLT instruction. Most agreed that their listening comprehension ability improved to a certain degree.

> *"I am more confident in my English ability now. I have a bigger word power now and my listening ability has been enhanced." (A8)*

> *"I learned listening strategies and the correct pronunciation. I also tried to guess the meanings of new words from prefixes and suffixes. So, my confidence in my English abilities has been raised." (D7)*

> *"I like communicative activities, especially games. I like the feeling of competition and I think there's more interaction in games. I can feel that my English listening comprehension is enhanced in a year's practice since the teacher speaks a lot of English in class." (A3)*

> *"I think my English listening proficiency improved after much practice in communicative activities. The pair-up activities are fun*

and they can enhance my creative thinking ability. They make learning easier and I pick it up naturally in practice." (D1)

The findings that CLT has a more beneficial effect on learners' listening proficiency than on their reading proficiency have reflected on the issue of what may be responsible for the ineffectiveness of CLT in reading instruction. Disorganised reading activities may be a contributing factor as three subjects responded:

"The reading task was a bit of chaos. Not every group member participated in the discussion. As a group leader, I tried to get everyone to talk, but it just didn't work out that way. Besides, the time for discussion was not enough. We needed more time to finish the assigned paragraph." (A05)

"I'd rather my teacher taught reading in a traditional way. With a traditional teaching method, I understand more. I wish that my teacher would translate the sentences in text one by one." (B04)

"It's good that we can have discussion over reading rather than having the teacher do all the talking. Through discussion we can exchange our ideas about the same concept. Within the group, we brainstorm and help one another. I think interaction promotes reading comprehension. However, group discussion was not organised in a good way. With fewer partners in my group, one of my group members had to be responsible for more than one paragraph. That's hard within limited class time." (D06)

Apart from the effects of CLT instruction on learner motivation and English proficiency, I am also concerned about the relationships between students' learning motivation and their English proficiency. A major finding which evolved from research question four is that there is a positive relationship between learners' intrinsic motivation that reflects learners' intrinsic interest in learning English and their English listening proficiency. As researchers claimed that learners with intrinsic motivation may learn better (Dörnyei, 1990a); i.e., an intrinsically motivated learner is more likely to attain a higher proficiency in language than a learner whose motivation is extrinsic. However, the question has long been asked as to whether motivation influences

achievement or whether achievement affects motivation (Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004). It seems that both directional influences are plausible (see Figure 3.1). As Ellis maintained that "the relationship between motivation and achievement is an interactive one" (Ellis, 1994, p. 515), in addition to providing reinforcement of the bidirectional relationship between the two, I identify motivation as a key factor in L2 acquisition and the crucial role a classroom teacher plays in optimising the productivity of his or her CLT classes.

As indicated earlier in this section, there is a positive relationship between learners' intrinsic interest in learning English and their English listening proficiency. This finding can be supported by the interviewees' responses to one interview question (See Appendix C), which was associated with their perceptions towards the importance of learning English in Taiwan. Their responses were not surprising in that there was unanimous consensus among all interviewees that English is a very important language, a tool for communication in education and commerce in Taiwan. As discussed in chapter one of this study, globalisation plays a vital role. There was fully unanimous agreement among all 27 interviewees that it is very important to learn English. Although they varied in their major subjects studied in school, they all recognised the significance of learning English in Taiwan. Many of them admitted learning English for 'practical' reasons, such as studies or future jobs. Below is a typical interviewees' response to the question whether they think it is important to learn English in Taiwan.

> *"I think it is very important to learn English in Taiwan because English is an international language and it is used in many fields. For example, if I become a nurse in the future, I definitely need to use English at work." (A3)*

> *"Learning English is very important for me. I am a nursing student. Much of the knowledge in medicine and nursing comes from modern countries such as America and European countries. What's more, the textbooks for many of my school subjects are in English. If I don't learn English well, I will have trouble understanding nursing subjects." (C4)*

"Well, considering that English is a required school subject that I have to pass, it is important to learn English. As in Taiwan everybody is learning English, if you don't, you are out of fashion." (D2)

"I think so. English is very important because it is used all over the world, in commerce, in education. If I have a good command of English, I can get a good job." (A3)

"Of course because English is an international language and it is used by people from most parts of the world. If my English is good, I can communicate with people from other countries." (D7)

"Yes, English is particularly important in technology due to globalization. Basically, knowledge in the field of medicine quickly spreads out through the use of English." (B5)

"I envy people who speak English. In Taiwan, people who speak English are normally highly educated and have a higher social status. So, I think it is very important to learn English in Taiwan." (C2)

"Learning English is really important in Taiwan. There is an increasing number of cram schools in major cities. When I was ten, my parents sent me to a cram school to learn English. They had high hopes for me because they did not understand English. I guess they want me to stand out, to get a head start in academic performance and employment in the future." (E9)

In addition to studying English as a school requirement or learning English for future work, the importance of English can be reflected in the interviewees' personal interest in learning English.

"It is important to learn English because people from many parts of the world are speaking and using it. If you don't learn English, you can't communicate with them. I like travelling, so I wish I could communicate with them in English." (B1)

"Learning English is important for me because I've given a lot of thought to studying in the U.S. In order to get a foreign degree, the first thing I need to do is to pass a test, such as the TOEFL or the

TOEIC." (D2)

> *"Learning English is important in Taiwan since English is used a lot in many perspectives. For me, I have recently met someone online and we communicate in English because he is from Canada. He seems like a friendly, interesting guy. Now I want to learn more and improve my English so I can be his friend." (C3)*

By the same token, research question five offers a similar profile of the relationship between motivation and English reading proficiency. The reason there was no positive relationship between pupils' learning motivation and their English reading proficiency was likely due to the following. First of all, insufficient instruction time may be the key factor. Chang and Goswami (2011) conducted a study to explore the factors that hinder Taiwanese college teachers' implementation of the CLT approach. One participating teacher in their study regarded insufficient instruction time as a hindering factor to the implementation of CLT practice. She pointed out that CLT activities were time-consuming and therefore normal college English class in Taiwan that lasted four hours a week was by no means sufficient for regular teaching using CLT. As such, for a mere two hours of English reading instruction a week and limited reading immersion outside the class during the implementation of the study, the outcomes of the findings are understandably reasonable.

The relationship between learning motivation and the subjects' reading proficiency can also be considered in terms of a lack of effort and practice on the part of the learners. It is obvious that in an EFL setting students rarely have the opportunity to practise English in a natural setting. The subjects' response to one survey question explains this. With regard to the analyses of survey questions, they spent an average of only one and a half hours practising English outside the class (See Appendix B). Given that the subjects in this study were vocational education background students who have a heavy workload and an average total weekly schedule of 27 class hours, a lack of language practice and use outside the classroom is not unpredictable.

On the other hand, class size has constantly remained a debated issue among CLT

researchers, as discussed in the literature review chapter of this study. According to Chen, Warden, and Chang (2005), the average number of a university freshman class in Taiwan was 53, more than double the size of a regular ESL class. EFL teachers have been reported to struggle and ended up avoiding adopting CLT (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) when being challenged with the task of managing a big class of over 50. Below is a participating interviewee's response to a CLT reading game in which she linked class size to the effect.

> *"I like the true or false game. It is fun and exciting. Too bad I was watching others play rather than playing it myself since it is such a big class. Only 3 of my group members were really in the game. I wish more students could have joined the game, so the learning effect could be more observable." (D1)*

When it comes to research question six, the underlying premise is that if the CLT approach does not yield pedagogical merits in this study, then what factors may emerge as constraints hindering the implementation of CLT in the EFL setting. Whereas some studies (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Jin, Singh & Li, 2005; Karim, 2011) explored teachers' perceptions of CLT, the present study approached the factors from the learner perspectives. To gain insights into how students view CLT, it is my hope that the students' voice may provide a new avenue for those seeking to achieve sustainable solutions to the target problem. One participating teacher's response in an interview in Chang and Goswami's study (ibid.) perhaps best interprets the results of my study: CLT can aid learner enhancement in their long-term English development, but may not improve their motivation or grades in a short period of time. It is conceivable that my findings were partly in parallel with their results.

To illustrate how various inhibiting factors interact with one another impacting participants' engagement in the CLT classroom, Figure 5.1 is created to summarise the interrelatedness. On the one hand, the learner factor and the peer factor comprise the 'human factor'. Learners' low motivation and low English proficiency together with their 'inhibiting' personalities make the learning tasks more challenging. On the other

hand, the 'non-human factor' incorporates the implementation factor and the administration factor. For instance, an emerging barrier to hinder learners from participating in CLT activities or in-class tasks is the amount of time allocated for them. A time limit could culminate in learner difficulty or pressure and thereby may impede acquisition, 'especially for L2 learners who are at the beginning and low intermediate levels' (Oxford, 2006, p. 102). This factor, coupled with others associated with the education system or school administration are subsumed into the 'administration factor'. Another example of this is the layout of the traditional classroom where the tables and seating arrangements do not facilitate collaborative work in the CLT reading classroom. Be it a human or non-human factor, all factors weave together a powerful and influencing force, interacting and impacting on one another in a bidirectional cycle. Figure 5.1 displays a simple diagram illustrating the relationships among all four categories of factors.

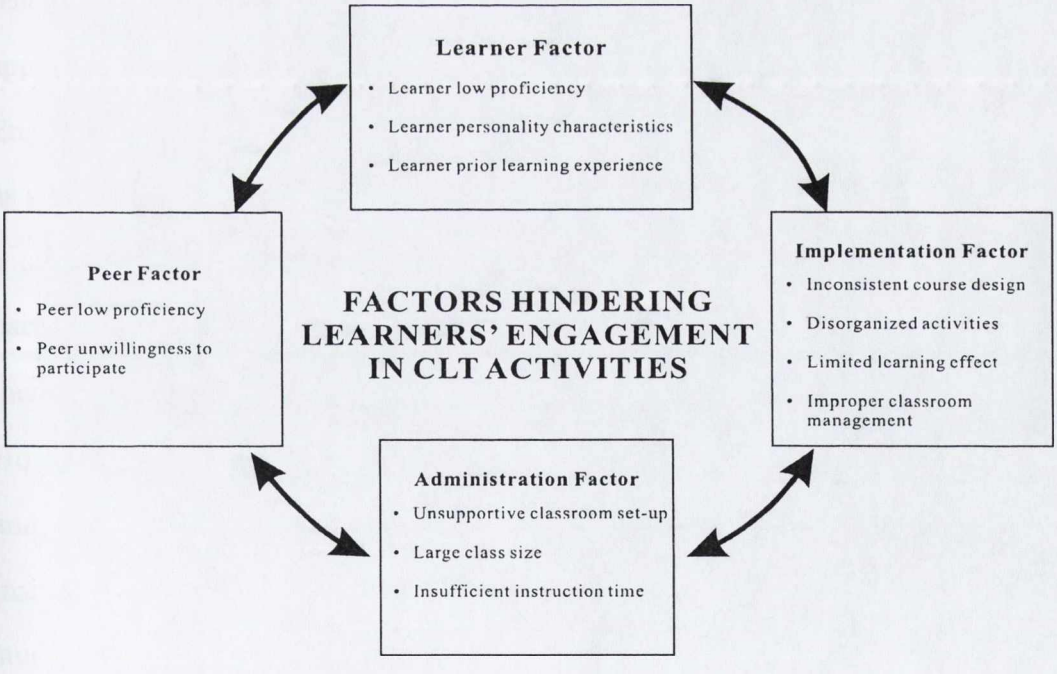

Figure 6.1 Factors hindering learners from engaging in a communication-based classroom

After presenting discussion and conclusions, I will proceed to some pedagogical

implications in the next section.

6.2 Conclusions

This study investigated the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on students' learning motivation and English proficiency. Based on the results of the research findings, it can be concluded that the CLT approach has an effect on learners' 'requirement' motivation to learn English. The reasons they are required to learn English range from anticipation from parents and social pressure to studying for exams. Conversely, learners' intrinsic motivation is not affected by CLT instruction. It seems to suggest that in Taiwan EFL learner motivation can be triggered by their 'requirement' motivation to learn English.

Further statistical analysis indicates that students showed significant gains on the part of the learner in English listening proficiency after CLT instruction. However, their reading proficiency development is relatively smaller. It is thus possible that the CLT approach may have differential effects on Taiwanese vocational university students' English listening and reading proficiency. A logical conclusion drawn from this finding as shown earlier in this chapter is that the instructional time was not enough to achieve a strikingly beneficial effect on learners' English proficiency, as revealed by one participant in her quote. If sufficient time had been expended on reading instruction, there could have been more positive gains in learners' English reading proficiency. However, four categories of factors including learner factors such as low proficiency and shyness revealed in the earlier chapter in this study were mainly responsible for the insignificant findings in the gains in participants' English reading proficiency. This study, therefore, concludes that the situation may have reversed had the four factors been warded off to students who have limited input and immersion in English in the classroom and the natural environment.

This study also attempts to unravel the relationship between learner motivation and learner English proficiency. Although it is widely accepted that the more motivated a

learner is, the more likely he/she is able to achieve success in language (Clément, 1980; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Gardner, 1985, 2007; MacIntyre, Clément, & Noels, 1998; Noels & Clément, 1996; Oller, 1978; Oxford, 1996), this study concludes that the more implied value participants think highly of English, the higher level their English listening proficiency will be. As 'implied value with English' reflects the subjects' intrinsic interest in learning English, a logical conclusion drawn from this result is that a learner's English listening proficiency could be enhanced after CLT instruction with an increased level of intrinsic motivation. Unfortunately, this conclusion can not be generalised to English reading proficiency.

The present study also focused on the factors that may hinder learners from engaging in CLT activities in the classroom. The results of the survey and interviews illuminate the analyses that look into this issue. Factors on the part of the learner and their peers are mainly due to their low proficiency and some factors in the affective domain. This study also concludes that learners' prior experience of English learning may also pose as an inhibiting factor since English education in Taiwan takes place in an EFL context where traditional teaching methods and a test-oriented education system have dominated the country for decades. The present study further concludes that the 'implementation factor' and the 'administration factor' should also be responsible for the disengagement of participants in the communication-based classroom. The two 'non-human' factors contain those associated with classroom management and set-up, course design, organisation of the activities, instruction time, and class size.

In sum, the present study demonstrated conclusively that there are different dimensions of learning motivation and they relate differentially to pupils' English listening and reading proficiency. Additionally, conclusions are drawn upon the factors that may hinder students' engagement in communicative activities as they may play a crucial role in the success of CLT listening and reading instruction at the vocational tertiary level in Taiwan.

6.3 Implications

The first finding and conclusion that CLT instruction has a positive effect on students' motivation arising from their 'requirement' to learn English leads to the implication that instrumental motivation is a key variable in successful language learning rather than intrinsic motivation in the Taiwan context. However, it was illustrated earlier that instrumental motivation does not last long. A learner with an integrative or intrinsic motivation is believed to sustain longer motivation along the learning course as intrinsic motivation may reflect a person's genuine interest in English. Therefore, this study provides pedagogical implications for teachers and educators to reflect on the ways to raise their pupils' genuine interest in learning by improving their teaching practice. Attending CLT workshops is one way, a positive factor by means of which a teacher can strengthen his/her professional training, and thereby improve his/her teaching practice to enhance the implementation of CLT.

Closer inspection of the distinctions between the findings of research questions two and three attests to the importance and implications of effective L2 reading instruction in CLT. The reason subjects differed in listening and reading proficiency gains is perhaps because the effects of CLT instruction on the gains in English reading proficiency are largely limited to a set of interrelated individual components of communicative competence in reading, such as motivational macrostrategies and vocabulary building, especially for a short course of learning. The present study could have greater implications to the extent that more attention should be devoted to teaching communicative competence in reading. Given due importance, course content and design, classroom set-up and management, and the organisation of activities all have a decisive part to play in creating successful learning in achieving reading proficiency. Therefore, these findings have posed important challenges and implications for EFL CLT teachers to map out a feasible curriculum to promote pupils' reading growth.

Researchers (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Kipp & Jackson, 1999) have discussed the practical constraints that stand in the way of introducing the communicative language

teaching approach to L2 settings. Large classes, uninteresting teaching materials, grammar-oriented examinations and time constraints were observed to hinder the promotion of the CLT approach in L2 countries. Among them, the learner factor is perhaps the most dominant one. Students' low proficiency and their resistance to participate in activities should urge CLT teachers to contemplate ways to motivate their pupils. After all, we as teachers need to know that learners may differ markedly in their reactions to learning a foreign language. Some may welcome the given opportunity to interact; for others, however, it is something they instinctively shy away from. These phenomena may be individual or could generalise to an entire population in the speech community. Language teachers ought to understand the learning difficulties their students encounter so as to design appropriate curricula and adopt effective teaching approaches to meet their needs in facilitating effective teaching and learning. The implication here therefore is that CLT teachers could make changes to overcome contextual constraints and direct positive changes in quality teaching and learning. While communicative teaching methods will continue to be explored, we as teachers should bear in mind that there is no single method that will fit all teachers and learners in all contexts. What is best for some settings may not fit into other contexts. Consequently, there is a need for us to adapt and develop a pedagogy that is suited to our own specific culture of learning. A further implication at this point is that it is important to understand the individuality between the East and the West while applying the CLT approach to the Taiwan setting.

In this study large class size is identified as a major factor that discouraged subjects from engaging in the CLT classroom, a concept recognised by some language teachers (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Li, 1998). Kipp & Jackson (1999), who had extensive contacts and teaching experience with Korean students, shed light on "making large classes communicative." They stressed the significance of good classroom management and effective patterns of teacher-student interaction as keys to working with a large class.

The findings to research question five suggest that in the case of limited instruction

time and learner practice time, more attention should focus on what a CLT teacher can do to positively motivate his pupils in enhancing their English reading proficiency. The implication is that classroom teachers are advised to offer learners ample input and opportunities for meaningful interaction to stimulate their learning motivation to read. After all, the language classroom is very likely the learners' only place for real communication.

Further implication can be drawn to the promotion of task-based language teaching and learning in Taiwan. As illustrated early in chapter two, the notion of learning through tasks has become widespread and prevalent in many Asian countries. Reflecting on the outcomes of this study, I am concerned how task-based learning can be effectively implemented in the tertiary vocational level in Taiwan. As TBL stresses authentic language and meaningful interaction in completing a task, I contend that it is the teacher's role to contrive the kinds of tasks that are most meaningful and effective in the EFL context in having a positive impact on learner motivation, contributing to communicative competence and henceforth, a successful learning outcome.

Taken together, I would like to highlight one implication. As Baker and Wigfield (1999) maintained that rather than categorising a student as one with intrinsic or instrumental motivation, it is important to understand that many students have a mixture of both types of motivational characteristics and some of which may or may not facilitate their engagement in reading activities or tasks. Therefore, recognising learner individuality may be the first step in attempting to foster the learner's motivation.

In the following section, I offer my suggestions as directions for future research on CLT.

6.4 Directions for future research

Notwithstanding that the present study brings about significant findings that gain insights into motivation and pedagogical outcomes, some aspects of the study provide directions for future research.

First, I have illustrated that in spite of the reputation of a popular "imported" teaching approach from Western English-speaking countries, communicative language teaching has met criticism and is seen to have clashed with the social and cultural norms of most Asian countries, where English is learnt as a school subject rather than as a means of communication. The question has long been asked as to whether Western-based pedagogy is viable in the Asian classroom. It is therefore the intent of the present study to apply CLT to vocational university students in Taiwan, a typical EFL country, to examine its effects on learner motivation and English proficiency. While confronting a myriad of oppositions and criticisms from CLT opponents, there remains a concern for Taiwanese CLT teachers to realise whether there is a need for CLT in EFL settings, and if need be, the issue here is perhaps whether they should adopt CLT as a 'ready-made recipe' or adapt it to fit the needs of their local conditions. Therefore, further research is warranted to study the ways in which CLT methodology can be adapted by ELT practitioners. Further studies may be undertaken to inform Taiwanese teachers about the need to develop practices appropriate to the Taiwan context. As such, attention should be drawn to the development of teaching materials and the design of tasks appropriate for the various proficiency levels and differing educational backgrounds of learners.

Second, since English is used differently around the globe, CLT studies may entail research in motivation. In adopting the view that there is a positive relationship between learning motivation and achievement, I investigated whether CLT instruction can raise learner motivation, specifically for lower proficiency students. In this respect, the findings of this study highlight the need for research to further look into the types of motivation and other affective variables that may have a direct link to achievement or English proficiency. If certain factors are conducive to communicative learning, then it would be vital for the classroom teacher to enhance it in achieving the ultimate goal of language acquisition. Additional research could also yield intriguing effects if investigations were performed on different language level and different age subjects.

A third area of more extensive research would be assessment of communicative competence, which has been reported as a barrier to the implementation of CLT in the EFL context.

Fourth, more future research could be directed toward the teacher's role in a CLT classroom. A survey can be carried out on the challenges teachers face. Emphasis should be focused on the ways to improve teachers' teaching strategies and classroom management.

Last but not least, there is a possible direction on advancement to vocational students' needs in the workplace. As the background of the subjects in this study is a nursing setting, it is my concern to extend this study to professionals in the medical and nursing context in Taiwan. I find compelling reasons for more research into the domain of the communicative competence they need for their future work.

In the section that follows, I will be focusing specifically on the limitations to the present study.

6.5 Limitations

For the present study limitations arise due to specific factors. This section points to the limited scope of this study.

At the outset, this study investigated the participants' English listening and reading proficiency rather than all four skills. Due to the limitations in budget, curriculum, and administration, the measures of the subjects' speaking and writing competence are beyond the scope of this study. The findings are therefore restricted to the effects of the communicative language teaching approach on learners' English proficiency in listening and reading rather than across all four skills.

Secondly, this study explores limited affective factors with regard to learner motivation. The subareas of interest within the affective domain range from learner attitudes to levels of anxiety, personality, confidence, self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, empathy, extroversion and acculturation. Given sufficient time, this study could have

dealt with a broader perspective.

Also, this study is limited in that there is a lack of a random sampling procedure as the participants were my own students. Additionally, this study could have divided the subjects into two separate groups to identify the effects of the intervention of the teaching approach and henceforth compared the two groups' learning motivation and proficiency gains in English. In the light of this, the generalisation of the results was further limited to the level of the learners, who were all beginning proficiency level students. Higher-proficiency learners were therefore beyond the scope of this study. In addition to the small number of subjects, this investigation involved students from the same school, limiting the interpretations of the findings.

Unfortunately, I was the course instructor as well as the researcher and therefore had to participate in the administration of the English proficiency tests and interviews. This may have led to an unrealistic representation of the subjects' responses to the questionnaire and interview questions.

6.6 Summary

In this chapter I came to several conclusions based on the findings in the study. The first conclusion drawn from the study is that CLT instruction seems to enhance students' instrumental motivation rather than their intrinsic motivation. The second conclusion draws our attention to the fact that the communicative language teaching approach did have a beneficial effect on students' English listening proficiency as there was a significant difference in the gains in their English listening comprehension test scores after CLT instruction. Unfortunately, the gains in the reading proficiency test scores were comparatively limited. Moreover, the conclusions are also supported by the finding that the more intrinsic interest a learner shows in learning English, the more gains there will be in his English listening proficiency. However, the situation is reversed with the gains in learners' English reading proficiency test scores. In conclusion, the results of this study are partly consistent with the findings in the

preceding research.

Participants' responses to the questionnaire survey and interview questions in general have provided clues to the above study outcomes. The participating interviewees revealed a number of factors that hindered their engagement in in-class activities in the classroom. Be they the learner factor, peer factor, implementation factor, or the administration factor, all point to the critical role of the CLT teacher in mediating between the students and the macro- and micro-environments, namely, the policies, the classroom, their peers, and the culture of learning. All these multidimensional and interrelated key factors intersect to become an overarching statement:

The results and conclusions of the present study have provided pedagogical implications. It is suggested that a CLT teacher may adapt rather than simply adopt CLT into their teaching and try reconciling the traditional approach and the communicative approach to fit a modified version of CLT into their pedagogy, one in which the activities are tailor made to the learners' personal experience to enhance their motivation levels and meet their needs and interest.

This chapter also makes suggestions on directions for future research. Further research is suggested to study the ways in which CLT can be adapted to meet the needs of different level and age students in Taiwan. Also worth investigation in the future is the type of motivation and affective variable that has a greater impact on students' English proficiency, research on assessment of learners' communicative competence, the ways in which CLT classroom teachers can improve their teaching practices, and the kind of communicative competence students really need in their future workplaces are also recommended.

This chapter ends up with the limitations of the study. They include a limited scope in terms of the participants' affective factor and English proficiency being investigated, a small sample size, and the multiple identities of the researcher, instructor, and administrator of the study.

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APPENDIX A

PRE-CLT QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire aims to explore your English learning motivation. Questions in Section I relate to your personal background. Please tick in the appropriate box or fill in each blank. Questions in Section II are about your learning motivation. There are five answer choices in each question. Answer choice 5 is an indication of 'strongly agree' (SA). Answer choice 4 is an indication of 'agree' (A). Answer choice 3 is an indication of 'uncertain' (U). Answer choice 2 is an indication of 'disagree' (D). Answer choice 1 is an indication of 'strongly disagree' (SD). Please circle an appropriate answer.

I. Background information

1. Name: _____
2. Student No.: _____
3. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
4. Age: _____ years
5. My major:
   - ☐ Nursing
   - ☐ Information Management
   - ☐ Infant & Child Care
   - ☐ Health Care Management
   - ☐ Exercise & Health Science
6. My programme:
   - ☐ 4-year
   - ☐ 2-year
   - ☐ Freshman
   - ☐ Sophomore
   - ☐ Junior
   - ☐ Senior
7. I graduated from …
   - ☐ General high school
   - ☐ Comprehensive high school
   - ☐ Vocational high school
   - ☐ Technological/vocational college/university
   - ☐ 5-year/3-year junior college
   - ☐ University

8. My desired English proficiency level

☐ Poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Good ☐ Excellent ☐ Native-like

9. My possible future English proficiency level

☐ Poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Good ☐ Excellent ☐ Native-like

II. Learning motivation.

	SA	A	U	D	SD
10. I learn English to live a better life.	5	4	3	2	1
11. It will be a great loss if I don't study English.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I learn English because a good English competency is recognized in Taiwan.	5	4	3	2	1
13. A sense of accomplishment in learning English urges me to learn more.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Learning English is a burden for me.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I learn English to become a more knowledgeable person.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I learn English to keep myself up-to-date in academics and technology.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I learn English because I need to take tests.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I learn English because I want to live in a foreign country for some time.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I learn English because the U.S. and the U.K. are powerful countries in the world.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I think learning English is an interesting challenge.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I learn English because it helps me participate in ethnic activities more comfortably.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I want to learn English because it is helpful in finding a better job.	5	4	3	2	1
23. I don't like learning English because I had an unhappy learning experience.	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
24. I want to learn English because it helps me engage in leisure activities.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I want to learn English to acquire knowledge of world news.	5	4	3	2	1
26. It is important that I excel in English in my English class.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I want to learn English because it help me communicate with people from different cultures.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I study English hard because I want to receive good grades.	5	4	3	2	1
29. When I have good performance in English exams, I will study harder.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I want to learn English because it helps me study abroad.	5	4	3	2	1
31. I want others to think that I am an English native speaker.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I learn English to make friends with foreigners.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I have given up learning English because I do not have confidence in it.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I want to learn English because I'd like to think and behave like Americans and British people.	5	4	3	2	1
35. I really like studying English.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I often feel uncomfortable speaking English.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I am positive that I can learn English well.	5	4	3	2	1
38. I consider learning English hardship.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I don't think there is a need for me to learn much English.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I learn English because I want to emigrate to a foreign country.	5	4	3	2	1
41. I learn English because I need to pass the TOEFL or IELTS.	5	4	3	2	1
42. Learning English gives me a better understanding of the art and culture of English-speaking countries so I could appreciate them more.	5	4	3	2	1
43. I learn English because it is a required subject.	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
44. I think English sounds beautiful.	5	4	3	2	1
45. I learn English to meet others' anticipation and requests.	5	4	3	2	1
46. I learn English because I want to travel to English-speaking countries.	5	4	3	2	1
47. I learn English because it makes me an influential person in my group.	5	4	3	2	1
48. I study hard while taking English in school because I am interested in trying out new things.	5	4	3	2	1
49. I study hard in my English course because I want to receive high grades.	5	4	3	2	1
50. When I use English, I don't think I am Taiwanese.	5	4	3	2	1
51. I am afraid that using English would make me feel more like a foreigner.	5	4	3	2	1
52. I think English is a better language than Chinese.	5	4	3	2	1
53. I feel uncomfortable with Taiwanese talking in English.	5	4	3	2	1
54. Learning English makes me a modern citizen.	5	4	3	2	1
55. I want to learn English because of the needs of computers and the Internet.	5	4	3	2	1
56. I want to learn English because my classmates and friends are learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
57. I want to learn English so I can use it in my daily life.	5	4	3	2	1
58. I hope my English is as good as my Chinese.	5	4	3	2	1
59. The only reason I want to learn English is to communicate with foreigners.	5	4	3	2	1
60. I do not have a specific goal in learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
61. I want to learn English to understand daily conversations.	5	4	3	2	1
62. I want to learn English to pass a test.	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
63. I want to learn English to be able to read an English textbook.	5	4	3	2	1
64. I want to learn English to be able to write professional English.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX B

POST-CLT QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire aims to explore your English learning motivation. Questions in Section I relate to your personal background. Please tick in an appropriate box or fill in each blank. Questions in Section II are about your learning motivation. There are five answer choices in each question. Answer choice 5 is an indication of 'strongly agree' (SA). Answer choice 4 is an indication of 'agree' (A). Answer choice 3 is an indication of 'uncertain' (U). Answer choice 2 is an indication of 'disagree' (D). Answer choice 1 is an indication of 'strongly disagree' (SD). Please circle an appropriate answer. Items in Section III mainly concern your perceptions towards CLT and classroom activities. Please tick in an appropriate box and write your ideas freely in the blanks.

I. Background information

1. Name: _____
2. Student No.: _____
3. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
4. Age: _____ years
5. My major:
   - ☐ Nursing
   - ☐ Information Management
   - ☐ Infant & Child Care
   - ☐ Health Care Management
   - ☐ Exercise & Health Science
6. My programme:
   - ☐ 4-year ☐ 2-year
   - ☐ Freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior
7. I graduated from …
   - ☐ General high school
   - ☐ Comprehensive high school
   - ☐ Vocational high school
   - ☐ Technological/vocational college/university

☐ 5-year/3-year junior college ☐ University

8. My desired English proficiency level

☐ Poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Good ☐ Excellent ☐ Native-like

9. My possible future English proficiency level

☐ Poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Good ☐ Excellent ☐ Native-like

II. Learning motivation.

	SA	A	U	D	SD
10. I learn English to live a better life.	5	4	3	2	1
11. It will be a great loss if I don't study English.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I learn English because a good English competency is recognized in Taiwan.	5	4	3	2	1
13. A sense of accomplishment in learning English urges me to learn more.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Learning English is a burden for me.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I learn English to become a more knowledgeable person.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I learn English to keep myself up-to-date in academics and technology.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I learn English because I need to take tests.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I learn English because I want to live in a foreign country for some time.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I learn English because the U.S. and the U.K. are powerful countries in the world.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I think learning English is an interesting challenge.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I learn English because it helps me participate in ethnic activities more comfortably.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I want to learn English because it is helpful in finding a better job.	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
23. I don't like learning English because I had an unhappy learning experience.	5	4	3	2	1
24. I want to learn English because it helps me engage in leisure activities.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I want to learn English to acquire knowledge of world news.	5	4	3	2	1
26. It is important that I excel in English in my English class.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I want to learn English because it help me communicate with people from different cultures.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I study English hard because I want to receive good grades.	5	4	3	2	1
29. When I have good performance in English exams, I will study harder.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I want to learn English because it helps me study abroad.	5	4	3	2	1
31. I want others to think that I am an English native speaker.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I learn English to make friends with foreigners.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I have given up learning English because I do not have confidence in it.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I want to learn English because I'd like to think and behave like Americans and British people.	5	4	3	2	1
35. I really like studying English.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I often feel uncomfortable speaking English.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I am positive that I can learn English well.	5	4	3	2	1
38. I consider learning English hardship.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I don't think there is a need for me to learn much English.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I learn English because I want to emigrate to a foreign country.	5	4	3	2	1
41. I learn English because I need to pass the TOEFL or IELTS.	5	4	3	2	1
42. Learning English gives me a better understanding of the art and culture of English-speaking countries so I could appreciate them more.	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
43. I learn English because it is a required subject.	5	4	3	2	1
44. I think English sounds beautiful.	5	4	3	2	1
45. I learn English to meet others' anticipation and requests.	5	4	3	2	1
46. I learn English because I want to travel to English-speaking countries.	5	4	3	2	1
47. I learn English because it makes me an influential person in my group.	5	4	3	2	1
48. I study hard while taking English in school because I am interested in trying out new things.	5	4	3	2	1
49. I study hard in my English course because I want to receive high grades.	5	4	3	2	1
50. When I use English, I don't think I am Taiwanese.	5	4	3	2	1
51. I am afraid that using English would make me feel more like a foreigner.	5	4	3	2	1
52. I think English is a better language than Chinese.	5	4	3	2	1
53. I feel uncomfortable with Taiwanese talking in English.	5	4	3	2	1
54. Learning English makes me a modern citizen.	5	4	3	2	1
55. I want to learn English because of the needs of computers and the Internet.	5	4	3	2	1
54. I want to learn English because my classmates and friends are learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
55. I want to learn English so I can use it in my daily life.	5	4	3	2	1
56. I hope my English is as good as my Chinese.	5	4	3	2	1
57. The only reason I want to learn English is to communicate with foreigners.	5	4	3	2	1
58. I do not have a specific goal in learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
59. I want to learn English to understand daily conversations.	5	4	3	2	1

60. I want to learn English to pass a test. 5 4 3 2 1

61. I want to learn English to be able to read an English textbook. 5 4 3 2 1

62. I want to learn English to be able to write professional English. 5 4 3 2 1

III. Please answer the following questions.

63. Which classroom activity (games, problem-solving, information-gap, role-play) do you like the most and why?

_____

_____

_____

64. Which classroom activity (games, problem-solving, information-gap, role-play) do you like the least and why?

_____

_____

_____

65. How has your English reading and listening competence changed after a year's communicative instruction? Please tick in an appropriate box and explain why.

☐ enhanced

☐ not enhanced

☐ unchanged

_____

_____

_____

66. Generally speaking, do you prefer the communicative language teaching approach (featuring interaction, grouping with an aim to enhance your communicative competence) or the traditional teaching approach (with a focus on memorisation and repeated patterned drills)? Why?

_____

_____

_____

67. Please indicate your level of participation in any type of activities in this course. If you tick 'not involved' or 'completely not involved', please describe the factors that deter you from it.

☐ totally involved

☐ involved

☐ not involved

☐ completely not involved

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- **Reasons for studying English**

Q1. Why are you studying English?

Q2. If English is not a required school subject, would you study English? Why or why not?

Q3. Do you like learning English? Why or why not?

- **Importance of learning English**

Q4. Do you think it is important to learn English in Taiwan? Why or why not?

- **English learning Experience**

Q5. Please describe your previous school English learning experience.

Q6. Did you use to learn English outside the school? If yes, was it a joyful experience? Please describe it.

- **Past experience of and future intentions of studying/working/living in an English-speaking country**

Q7. Have you ever lived in or travelled to an English-speaking country? Did you like it?

Q8. Do you wish to study/work/live in a foreign country in the future? Why or why not?

- **Perceptions towards the CLT approach and in-class activities**

Q9. Do you find CLT activities (interesting / difficult / helpful) in general?

Q10. Do you prefer the traditional teaching approach or the communicative language teaching approach? Why?

Q11. Did you encounter any difficulties during CLT activities in the classroom?

APPENDIX D

CONSENT LETTER FROM SCHOOL OF PARTICIPANTS

17 June, 2009

Miss Hui-Chin Chang

School of Education

Queen's University Belfast

Dear Miss Hui-Chin Chang,

I'd be delighted to inform you that you are granted the permission to utilize National Taipei University of Nursing and Health Sciences as the institute where you can collect data for your doctoral research entitled "Effects of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach on the English Learning Motivation and English Proficiency of Non-English Majors in a Technological and Vocational University in Northern Taiwan".

Should you need further assistance regarding the instrumentation, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely yours,

_____

Kuang Ta Lee, Ph. D.

Director

Center of General Education

National Taipei University of Nursing and Health Sciences

APPENDIX E

ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER FROM SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Queen's University
Belfast

School of Education

Research Office

Queen's University Belfast
69/71 University Street
Belfast
BT7 1HL
Tel 44+ (0) 28 90975961
Fax 44 + (0) 28 90975066
www.qub.ac.uk

Memorandum

To	Hui-Chin Chang
From	Ethics Committee
Date	9 July 2009
Distribution	Supervisors – Caroline Linse; Joy Alexander Doctoral Studies Secretary File
Subject	Ethics Approval

The School of Education Ethics Committee has reviewed your proposed study as submitted and has granted approval for you to proceed.

- It is important to ensure that you follow the procedures outlined in your submission. Any departures from these must be discussed with your supervisor, and may require additional ethical approval.

The Committee wishes you every success with your research.

APPENDIX F

CONSENT FORM FOR MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRES

June 25, 2009

Miss Hui-Chin Chang
School of Education
Queen's University Belfast
69/71 University Street
Belfast
BT7 1HL
Northern Ireland
the United Kingdom

Dear Ms. Hui-Chin Chang

I am delighted to inform you that you are permitted to use the items in the motivation questionnaire of my research paper for your doctoral research. Should you need additional assistance from me, please feel free to contact me.

With all the best wishes to the completion of your doctoral dissertation.

Sincerely,

_____

Shanmao Chang
Associate Professor
Department of English
National Changhua University of Education
Jin-De Campus
No. 1, Jin-De Road
Changhua City
Taiwan 500

APPENDIX G
CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

The purpose of this form is to invite you to participate in my research study under the title "Effects of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach on the English Learning Motivation and English Proficiency of Non-English Majors in a Technological and Vocational University in Northern Taiwan". This research is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for my degree of Doctor of Education at Queen's University Belfast.

The participants in this study will be entering students in the School English programmes. This research will involve different methods such as questionnaires and interviews conducted in Chinese, and audio recordings. All data collected in this study will be held anonymously and securely. Your identity will not be released by any means or in any form. Please note that your participation is completely voluntary. You can withdraw from this study at any time during the research process.

As a participant in this study, you will undertake the following activities. If you agree to do each individual task, please tick (√) the boxes below.

☐ A pre-CLT questionnaire (administered in Chinese)

☐ A post-CLT questionnaire (administered in Chinese)

☐ A pre-English listening proficiency test

☐ A pre-English reading proficiency test

☐ A post-English listening proficiency test

☐ A post-English reading proficiency test

☐ Informal interviews (administered in Chinese) & Audio recordings

If you have any comments or queries about this questionnaire or the study, please do not hesitate to contact me at the following postal or email address:

Room B304, No. 365, Ming Te Road

Beitou, Taipei, Taiwan 11219

☎ : 886-2-02-28227101, extension 3543

Email: hchang08@qub.ac.uk

Sincerely yours,

_____

Hui-Chin Chang

Signature of Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

*This form will be translated into Chinese for the study, which is conducted under the permission of the Institute of the participants.

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE SYLLABUS FOR A CLT-BASED LISTENING/SPEAKING CURRICULUM

WK	Unit Title	Activity Type	Description
1	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game	Learners are provided with Taiwanese and Western breakfast food names. They listen to food descriptions.
2	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game (20 Questions)	Learners interact in pairs, guessing which typical Taiwanese food or which top 10 unusual foods (from the Internet) their partner is describing.
3	"Breakfast Like a King"	Role-play	Learners watch a TV story and learn about 'food passion'.
4	"Breakfast Like a King"	Role-play	Learners simulate a scene from the TV story.
5	"Famous People: The Demise of a Mega Star" – Michael Jackson	Information-gap	Learners listen to an interview from a local TV talk show. The profile of this Hollywood star is given in advance.
6	"Famous People": The Demise of a Mega Star" – Michael Jackson	Information-gap	Learners form groups of four, surfing the Internet for a celebrity's life events, which are used as part of the information gap activity.
7	"Famous People": The Demise of a Mega Star" – Michael Jackson	Role-play	Learners role-play interviewing a superstar.
8	"Famous People": The Demise of a Mega Star" – Michael Jackson	Role-play	Class work: Students get excited about who is being interviewed.

WK	Unit Title	Activity Type	Description
9	"What Should I Do?"	Problem-solving	Learners listen to a radio talk show. Audiences call in about their personal problems. An expert is invited to give advice.
10	"What Should I Do?"	Problem-solving	The instructor summarises each clip of the radio talk.
11	"What Should I Do?"	Information-gap	Learners take turns asking for and giving advice in pairs.
12	"What Should I Do?"	Information-gap	The radio talk show 'expert's' advice is then compared to that of the learners'. Information-gap is used to elicit learners' advice.
13	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Information-gap	Learners listen to their instructor introducing her trip to England. Multi-media facilities (photos & Power Point) are used.
14	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Game	Learners practise listening strategy of getting the main ideas by playing a true/false game.
15	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Information-gap	Learners bring their own travel photos to talk about their trip.
16	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Game	Learners surf the Internet for top-10 must-see cities in the world.

APPENDIX I

SAMPLE SYLLABUS FOR A CLT-BASED READING CURRICULUM

WK	Unit Title	Activity Type	Description
1	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game	'Find Someone Who' is a grammar bingo game for tense review.
2	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game	This game integrates grammar and speaking; ideal for breaking the ice for new students.
3	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game	'Jigsaw' is used to highlight learners' reading strategies (main idea).
4	"Breakfast Like a King"	Game	'Culture' is a theme in the game. Students discuss cultural differences in terms of eating habits.
5	"Famous People: Demise of a Mega Star"	Information-gap	Used as an after-reading activity, the information-gap was based on Michael Jackson's life events.
6	"Famous People": Demise of a Mega Star"	Information-gap	Time order as a reading strategy is reviewed based on the order of Michael Jackson's life events.
7	"Famous People": Demise of a Mega Star"	Game: "My Idol"	Have students surf the Internet and bring to class his/her idol's profile.
8	"Famous People": Demise of a Mega Star"	Game: 20 questions	This game employs group work for learners to practise asking and answering yes-no questions.
9	"What Should I Do?"	Problem-solving	Clips of newspaper *Dear Abby* column letters are used. Students in small groups read the problems and brainstorm a solution to each problem.
10	"What Should I Do?"	Problem-solving	Concept of language functions (giving advice) is reinforced. Each group's solution is compared to Abby's.

WK	Unit Title	Activity Type	Description
11	"What Should I Do?"	Role-play	Students bring to class their own 'problem'.
12	"What Should I Do?"	Role-play	Students role-play in pairs giving each other advice.
13	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Information-gap	Short paragraphs of top-10 must-see cities are presented and used as the base of pair work.
14	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Information-gap	Students in groups brainstorm extra 'great places to visit in Taiwan' and practise language in pairs.
15	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Game	Students watch a DVD story introducing sights of Taiwan. Vocabulary and phrases in reading are reinforced.
16	"Did You Have a Good Time?"	Game	Students guess the site their teammate's descriptions (from Reading) in group work.

APPENDIX J

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN FOR CLT ACTIVITIES

Activity type: **ROLE-PLAY**

Topic: Interviewing a Superstar

Aim: To develop listening comprehension and fluency

Level: Pre-intermediate ~ Intermediate level

Timing: 50 minutes

Materials: Celebrity masks

Description:

First of all, put students into groups of four. Have them discuss within their groups to decide upon the superstar to be interviewed. Then ask them to surf the Internet to make a list of the celebrity's important profile items and important life events. As a group they create a dialogue for an interview and practise in pairs. Excitement will arise when students are called upon the stage to role-play in front of the whole class without identifying who the celebrity is. As most students are expected to select local icons as their superstars, to make the interview more authentic and fun, the instructor makes some 'celebrity masks' in advance and makes this activity a guessing game. In this activity, students work together, brainstorm, and help one another, with whom they collaboratively communicate in real language.

Activity type: **INFORMATION GAP**

Topic: Vacation

Aim: To enhance listening comprehension

Level: Low intermediate level

Timing: 40 minutes

Materials: (1) a travel video (2) vocabulary and phrase list (3) worksheets

Description:

To raise learner interest in the target topic, the instructor plays a 10-minute video of a tourist attraction in the United Kingdom. Some selected vocabulary items and phrases from the video episode are provided to students. Prior to paired interaction, a five-minute tense review is required. The key structure is the simple past tense. First of all, the instructor explains the rules of the activity. Then, activity sheets are distributed to the whole class, with half given sheet A and the other half given sheet B. After that, the students work in pairs, practicing reading, listening, speaking, and verb tenses, with the ultimate goal of filling the gap — the missing information on their sheets. At the end of the activity, students are able to talk about their 'unforgettable' vacation.

Activity type: **PROBLEM SOLVING**

Topic: What Should I Do?

Aim: (1) Making a suggestion & giving advice as language functions

(2) Reading comprehension

Level: Pre-intermediate level

Timing: 40~50 minutes

Materials: Advice-column letters

Description:

First, advice-column letters from newspapers are selected for problem-solving tasks. The problems, specifically teenage problems that are universal to all, provide students with an opportunity to voice their opinions freely and get meaning across. The topic of each problem is meticulously selected to meet students' interests. Students in small groups read, discuss 'their problem' in small groups and apply language functions, in this case making suggestions and giving advice to work out a possible solution to the

problem being assigned to them. After discussing the problem, one student from each group reports back to the class on the consensus reached within their group in terms of the solution to their problem. To encourage more communication and meaning making, the columnist's solution is displayed as a comparison and contrast to invite students' value judgments. Activities such as this tend to motivate learners. Not only do learners show interest in sharing 'a piece of their mind', they are curious about Dear Abby's, the expert's, advice.

Activity type: **GAME**

Topic: Find Someone Who

Aim: (1) Grammar tense review

(2) Listening comprehension

(3) Speaking fluency

Level: High-elementary to low-intermediate level

Timing: 30 minutes

Materials: Worksheets

Description:

'Find Someone Who' is a popular and effective game in ESL and EFL classes. It can be used to reinforce grammar, vocabulary or other linguistic elements. In this study the game is used as a warm-up activity for tense review in the beginning of a semester. Each student is given a grid of nine sentences, each with a fill-in-the blank in a different verb tense. The game is designed for all students to stand up and mingle around the classroom. As they hunt for their target – someone who would answer their questions with a positive answer, interaction emerges naturally in an unthreatening way. Those who obtain three 'right' responses draw a line either vertically, horizontally or diagonally to complete their bingo board game with three people they hunt. Eventually they report to the whole class about their 'findings'. This game can be especially

effective in serving the purpose of breaking the ice for a class of new students. After the game, students feel that they enjoy meeting new friends who 'like Lady Gaga' or who 'are going on a trip next weekend'.